DOCUMENT RESUME

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IDENTIFIERS	Identity Formation; Spirituality; *Taiwan; Texas

ABSTRACT

The papers from this conference are presented in three parts. Part 1 includes the panel sessions. Section 1 of part 1, "Trends, Policies, and Resources in Education," includes the following papers: "Continuing Higher Education and the Asian-American Perspective" (L.L. Hsu); "New Directions for Education: Minister Jin Wu's Initiatives to Rebuild Taiwan's Schools" (C.J. Liu); "City of Houston's Involvement in Education, Charter Schools in Texas, Flashing Yellow Lights, School Zones, Cooperative Programs with School, and Internet Availability" (M. Wong); and "Joint Efforts for Young Leadership Training" (E.L. Yao). Section 2, "Education Reform: Approaches and Implications" includes: "Educational Reform: The Student Perspective" (L.L. Chen); "Emerging Issues and Trends in Post Secondary Education" (D.L. To); and two articles with Chinese titles by A. Huang and L.C. Chiao. Part 2 includes the symposium and focuses on "Health, Social, Psychological, and Physical Development." The papers are: "Value of Physical Activities to the Growth and Development of Children and Youth Preference of Exercise Programs" (J.J. Zhang); "The Dimensions of Health" (J. Yi); "Aspects of Health and Spirituality" (B. Gor); "Psychological Perspectives of the Chinese American Education" (G. Lin); and "Ways of Coping with Stress of Chinese Students at an U.S. University" (F.M. Law and G.J. Guo). Part 3 offers the paper sessions. Section 1 of part 3 discusses "Students, Families, and Social Context" as follows: "Who am I? Chinese, American, or Both?--Coping with the Identity Issue and Becoming a Well-Rounded Person" (T. Hu and H.T. Liu); "What are the Anxious Examinees Thinking about while Taking a Test: An Introduction Using 'Thinking Aloud' Method" (A. Lau); "General Perceptions of School and Home among Asian-American Students and Their Parents" (M.G. Lian and K.F. Poon-McBrayer); "Parental Involvement: A New Challenge to Asian-American Parents" (W. Shen); "The Internal Consistency and Factor Structure of a

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Translation of Chinese Student Development Task and Lifestyle Inventory" (G.J. Guo and F.M. Law); and "The Preliminary Study of 1997 Taiwan Education Longitudinal Study" (S. Chang). Section 2, "Chinese Language Pedagogy and Ethnic Culture," includes "Classroom Activities for Enhancing Effectiveness in Teaching the Chinese Language" (C. Houng); "From Theory to Practice: An Application of Theme Cycle in Chinese Language Instruction" (L. Chang, J.M. Chang, S.H.L. Lee, and D. W. Lin); "Chinese Bilingual Education in the U.S.: A Case Study" (X. Qi); "A Case Study of Chinese Literacy Development" (M.C. Wang); "SAT II. Chinese Language Test and the Proficiency Oriented Instructional Approach" (T.H. Chao); "The Emergent Need for Forging Cross-Cultural Bonds in Education" (W. Mo); and "The Influence of Traditional Ethnic Culture on Education: The Chinese Experience" (S. Yuan). Section 3, "Teaching Effectiveness and Professional Development," includes "Burnout and Coping among High School Teachers in Taiwan" (C. Hwang, C. Hwang, and R.F. Scherer); "The Integration of Literature into Language Instruction" (L.T. Hsieh); "Empowerment through Participation: Chinese American in the Teaching Force" (J. Feng); "Making Instructional Media with College Students" (T.S. Li); "Teachers' Perception of Professional Development School" (J. Klingner and Z. Zhang); and "Practice and Research on the Continuous Education of Beijing Middle School and Primary School Teachers" (B. Shao). This section also includes a paper in Chinese by W.N. Shu. (SM)

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ED 425 124

September 20, 1997 · Houston, Texas

The Fifth International Conference Proceedings

第五屆國際會議論文集

Perspectives Of Chinese American Education In The 21st Century

北美華人教育研究策劃協會 1992 CAERDA

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北美華人教育研究及策劃協會

Chinese American Educational Research and Development Association

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北美華人教育研究及策劃協會

1997年 國際會議論文集

Acknowledgment

The Chinese American Educational Research and Development Association was found in 1992 to promote excellence in education for all students, particularly among Chinese American and other Chinese-origin people all over the world. Starting with the second year, we have hosted national conferences in Washington D. C. (1993), New York (1994), Chicago (1995), and San Jose (1996). This year, the fifth international conference is held in Houston, Texas. We have over 40 scholars and educators from the United States, Taiwan, China, and other places to shares their wisdom, knowledge, experiences and research findings in education with us. We appreciate each of the speakers, panelists, and presenters for their contributions to the conference. A special appreciation is extended to all of the session chairs and discussants who facilitate the discussions. We also to thank all co-sponsors and contributors for their generous support and encouragement. We have organized the papers and abstracts in the sequence of the conference program. The opinions expressed in this proceeding do not necessary reflect the option, policy or endorsement of the association or editors.

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北美華人教育研究及策劃協會
Chinese American Educational Research and Development Association
P. O. Box 5592
Rockville, Maryland 20855

PRESIDENT'S MESSAGE

Welcome to the fifth annual international conference sponsored by the Chinese American Educational Research and Development Association (CAERDA). This year's conference was held at the Double Tree Hotel, Houston, Texas on September 20, 1997.

In keeping with CAERDA's tradition, this international event provided participants with an opportunity to share research findings, exchange ideas, and acquire new information. In addition, we hope that you renewed friendships and established networks among colleagues from across the United States as well as from abroad.

The theme for this year's conference is "Perspectives of Chinese American Education in the 21st Century." Thanks to the leadership of our Vice President and Conference Chair, Dr. Susan Shwu-Yong Huang, 劉淑蓉博士, she and her conference planning committee have presented topics relevant to Chinese American educational issues through keynote speeches, panel discussions, and paper presentations from multiple perspectives.

Your active participation in this annual event has been the source of success for our CAERDA conference. In closing, I would like to express my sincere appreciation to our honorable guests, keynote speakers, panelists, presenters and members of conference committee for their support of CAERDA and this conference.

My best wishes for your continued success.

Ji-Mei Chang, Ph.D.
President, CAERDA
會長 張稚美敬上

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CAERDA 5th International Conference Program
September 20, 1997 Houston, Texas

Program Overview

8:00 a.m. - 1:00 p.m.	Registration
8:00 a.m. - 9:00 a.m.	Coffee & Tea
9:00 a.m. - 9:30 a.m.	Opening Ceremony
9:30 a.m. - 10:00 a.m.	Welcoming & Greetings
10:00 a.m. - 10:30 a.m.	Keynote Speech
10:30 a.m. - 10:45 a.m.	Break
10:45 a.m. - 12:00 a.m.	Panel Session: Panel 1
12:00 a.m. - 2:00 p.m.	Luncheon and Keynote Speech
2:00 p.m. - 3:30 p.m.	Symposium and Concurrent Paper Sessions
3:30 p.m. - 3:45 p.m.	Break
3:45 p.m. - 5:15 p.m.	Panel Session: Panel 2
5:15 p.m. - 5:45 p.m.	Membership General Meeting

9:00 - 9:30 a.m.	開幕典禮	Opening Ceremony San Felipe 2nd fl.
Introduction of Conference Chair	Dr. Beng T. Ho 何明通博士 Master of Ceremony 大會司儀	Commissioner, Overseas Chinese Affairs Commission
Introduction of President, CAERDA	Dr. Shwu-yong L. Huang 劉淑容博士	Chair, CAERDA '97 Conference College of Education, University of Houston
Introduction of Board of Directors	Dr. Ji-Mei Chang 張稚美博士	President, CAERDA Division of Special Education & Rehabilitative Services, San Jose State University
9:00 - 9:30 a. m.	來賓致詞	Welcoming and Greetings
Introduction of	Dr. Shwu-yong L. Huang 劉淑容博士	Chair, CAERDA '97 Conference
Honorable Yu Chung Lo羅副處長由中		Deputy Director General Taipei Economic and Cultural Office in Houston, Republic of China

10:00 - 10:30 a.m.	**主題演講**	**Keynote Speech**
Introduction of Keynote Speaker	Dr. Laura Hsu 林慧年博士	Assistant Dean and Program Director School of Continuing Studies, Rice University
Keynote Speaker	Dr. Ching-Wu Chu 朱經武博士	Director, Texas Center for Superconductivity, University of Houston
10:30 - 10:45 a.m.	**休息**	**Break**
10:45 - 12:00 a.m.		
Panel Session 1:	**Trends, Policies, & Resources in Education**	
Chair		
Dr. Lilly L. Cheng 劉麗容博士	Assistant Dean, Student Affairs and International Development, San Diego State University	
Panelists		
Dr. Laura L. Hsu 林慧年博士	Assistant Dean and Director of Programs, School of Continuing Studies, Rice University **Continuing Higher Education and the Asian-American Perspective**	
Dr. Ching-Jen Liu 劉慶仁博士	Director, Cultural Division, Taipei Economic and Cultural Office in Houston, R. O. C. **New Directions for Education: Minister Jin Wu's Initiatives to Rebuild Taiwan's Schools**	
Dr. Martha Wong 黃朱慧愛博士	Council Member, Houston City Council **City of Houston's Involvement in Education, Charter Schools in Texas, Flashing Yellow Lights, School Zones, Cooperative Programs with School, and Internet Availability**	
Dr. Esther L. Yao 姚李恕信博士	President, Foundation for National Political Leadership **Joint Efforts for Young Leadership Training**	

12:00 - 2:00 p.m.	午餐及專題演講	Lunch and Keynote Speech **Ballroom B**
Introduction of Keynote Speaker	Dr. Ji-Mei Chang 張稚美博士	President, CAERDA San Jose State University
Keynote Speaker	Dr. Tung-Kuei Hung 洪副委員長多桂博士	Vice Minister, Overseas Chinese Affairs Commission, Republic of China
Topic:	我國未來僑教政策與展望	

2:00 - 3:30 p.m. 論文發表 Symposium and Concurrent Paper Sessions

Symposium **Health, Social, Psychological, and Physical Development**

San Felipe A, 2nd fl.

Speakers:

Dr. James J. Zhang
張建輝博士

Department of Health and Physical Education, University of Houston

Value of Physical Activities to the Growth and Development of Children and Youth Preference of Exercise Programs

Dr. Jenny Yi
李起淑博士

Department of Health and Physical Education, University of Houston

The Dimensions of Health

Dr. Beverly Gor
敖關珍芳博士

Registered Dietitian in Private Practice

Aspects of Health and Spirituality

Dr. Gisela Lin
林潤芝博士

Student Counseling Service, Texas A & M University

Psychological Perspectives of Chinese American Education

Dr. Fang-Mei Law
駱芳美博士

Department of Counselor Education, Mississippi State University

Dr. Gwo-Jen Guo
郭國禎博士

Department of Quantitative Research, Evaluation & Measurement in Education, The Ohio State University

Ways of Coping with Stress of Chinese Students at an U. S. University

Chair

Dr. James J. Zhang 張驍輝博士 — Department of Health and Physical Education, University of Houston

Discussant

Dr. Joanne C. Peng 彭昭英博士 — Department of Counseling and Educational Psychology, Indiana University, IN.

Concurrent Paper Sessions

Session 1 **Students, Families, and Social Context** Richmond, 2nd fl.

Presenters

Dr. Trudy Hu & 胡慧菁博士 — Psychological Service Center, Austin, TX

Ms. Hsin-Tine Liu 劉心田女士 — Counseling Psychology Program, University of Texas at Austin

"Who am I? Chinese, American, or Both?" - Coping with the Identity Issue and Becoming a Well-Rounded Person.

Dr. Allen Lau 劉志明博士 — The Psychological Association, San Antonio

What Are the Anxious Examinees Thinking about While Taking a Test : An Introduction Using "Thinking Aloud" Method

Dr. Ming-Gon Lian 連明剛博士 — Department of Specialized Educational Development, Illinois State University

Dr. Kim Fong Poon-McBrayer 潘劍芳博士 — Department of Education, University of Hong Kong

General Perceptions of School and Home Among Asian-American Students and Their Parents

Dr. Wenju Shen 沈文玉博士 — Department of Early Childhood Education, Valdosta State University

Parental Involvement: A New Challenge to Asian-American Parents

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Dr. Gwo-Jen Guo 郭國禎博士	Dept. of Quantitative Research, Evaluation & Measurement in Education, The Ohio State University
Dr. Fang-Mei Law 駱芳美博士	Department of Counselor Education, Mississippi State University
	The Internal Consistency and Factor Structure of a Translation of Chinese Student Development Task and Lifestyle Inventory
Dr. Sean Chang 張善綺博士	Graduate Institute of Compulsory Education, National Taitung Teacher College, Taiwan.
	The Preliminary Study of 1997 Taiwan Education Longitudinal Study
Chair	
Dr. William Lan 藍雪博士	Department of Educational Psychology, Texas Tech University
Discussant	
Dr. Shu-Ling Wang 王淑玲博士	University of Southern California, Los Angeles, CA

Session 2 Chinese Language Pedagogy and Ethnic Culture

San Felipe B, 2nd fl.

Presenters

Dr. Caroline Houng 黃希敏博士	Center for Asian Studies, Rice University
	Classroom Activities for Enhancing Effectiveness in Teaching the Chinese Language
Dr. Lu Chang 常璐博士	Department of Education, College of Notre Dame, CA
Dr. Ji-Mei Chang 張稚美博士	Division of Special Education & Rehabilitative Services, San Jose State University
Ms. Shirley H. L. Lee 李小夏校長	Chinese American International School, San Francisco, CA
Dr. Daniel W. Lin 林文雄博士	Association of Northern California Chinese Language Schools
	From Theory to Practice: An Application of Theme Cycle in Chinese Language Instruction

Ms. Xiaoying Qi
戚效雪女士

Special Education Program, University of Pittsburgh

Chinese Bilingual Education in the U. S.: A Case Study

Ms. Mei-Chih Wang
王美智女士

Department of Curriculum & Instruction, University of Houston

A Case Study of Chinese Literacy Development

Ms. Theresa Hsu Chao
許笑濱主編

National Council of Associations of Chinese Language Schools

SAT II 中文語言測驗與生活實用中文教學

Dr. Weimin Mo
莫偉敏博士

Department of Early Childhood Education and Reading, Georgia Southern University

The Emergent Need for Forging Cross-Cultural Bonds in Education

Prof. Shaofen Yuan
袁少芬教授

Department of Ethnology, Guangxi University, P. R. C.

The Influence of Traditional Ethnic Culture on Education: The Chinese Experience

Chair

Dr. Caroline Houng
黃希敏博士

Center for Asian Studies, Rice University

Discussant

Mr. Peter Hsia
夏成銘總會長

National Council of Associations of Chinese Language Schools

Mrs. Yun Tsang
臧武雲女士

Evergreen Chinese School, Houston

Session 3 Teaching Effectiveness and Professional Development

Woodway, 2nd fl.

Presenters

Dr. Chi-en Hwang
黃琪恩博士

Department of Psychology, Cedarville College, OH

Prof. Chien-hou Hwang
黃堅厚教授

Department of Counseling and Educational Psychology, National Taiwan Normal University

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Dr. Robert F. Scherer	Wright State University, OH
	Burnout and Coping among High School Teachers in Taiwan
Dr. Liang-Tsu Hsieh 謝良足博士	Applied Foreign Languages Department, National Pingtung Institute of Commerce, Taiwan, R. O. C.
	The Integration of Literature into Language Instruction
Dr. Wei-Non Shu 許蔚農博士	International Trade Department, National Pingtung Institute of Commerce, Taiwan, R. O. C.
	面對21世紀技職教育應有的變革
Dr. Jianhua Feng 馮建華博士	College of Education, Georgia Southern University
	Empowerment Through Participation: Chinese American in the Teaching Force
Dr. Tsu-Shou Li 李祖壽博士	National Taiwan Normal University
	Developing Instructional Media in College Teaching
Dr. Janette Klingner	Department of Teaching and Learning, University of Miami
Mr. Zhigang Zhang 張志剛先生	Department of Teaching and Learning, University of Miami
	Teachers' perception of Professional Development School
Prof. Baoxing Shao 邵寶祥副校長	Beijing Institute of Education, P. R. C.
	Practice and Research on the Continuous Education of Beijing Middle School and Primary School Teachers

Chair

Dr. Chi-en Hwang 黃琪恩博士	Department of Psychology, Cedarville College, OH

Discussant

Dr. Fang Wu 吳放博士	Teacher Education, Hood College, MD
Dr. Jie-Qi Chen 陳杰琦博士	Erikson Institute for Advanced Study in Child Development, Chicago, IL

3:45 - 5:15 p.m.

Panel Session 2: **Education Reform: Approaches and Implications** **San Felipe, 2nd fl**

Chair

Dr. Samuel S. Peng 彭森明博士	National Center for Education Statistics, U. S. Department of Education

Panelists

Dr. Allen Huang 黃茂樹博士	Acting Dean, College of Education, University of Northern Colorado **教育改革中教師應扮演的角色**
Dr. Lilly Lee Chen 李靜香博士	Department of Linguistics, Rice University **Educational Reform: The Student Perspective**
Dr. Lung-Ching Chiao 喬龍慶博士	Center for International Education, U. S. Department of Education **認識"老教育", 建設"新教育"**
Dr. Due-Le To 蘇德禮博士	Office of Research, U. S. Department of Education **Emerging Issues and Trends in Post Secondary Education**

5:15 - 5:45 p.m. **Membership General Meeting**

Chair

Dr. Ji-Mei Chang 張稚美博士	President, CAERDA
Agenda	**會長交接** **會務討論**

北美華人教育研究及策劃協會
Chinese American Educational Research and Development Association

The Fifth International Conference

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Keynote Speech

Dr. Ching-Wu Chu
朱經武博士

Dr. Tung-Kuei Hung
洪副委員長冬桂博士

PART I Panel Sessions

1. Trends, Policies, and Resources in Education

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Continuing Higher Education: An Asian-American Perspective

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Rice University

I. Overview

Continuing education in the United States had its inception as early as 1862 when the federal government instituted, through the Morrill Acts, the first commitment to support continuing higher education (Brown, 1990). The initial support, as land grants to the state university systems, first focused on agricultural research, and subsequently developed extension education systems to disseminate new knowledge for practical application. By linking research to application, the extension system was instrumental in developing in the United States the world's most advanced science and technology for agriculture and food sciences, contributing significantly to the wealth and stability of the nation.

The concept and practice of extension education as an American innovation has had a world-wide impact. For example, the Cornell-Yen Jin University (Beijing) liaison had been such an enlightened program. In the 1920's China's age-old practices in agriculture and other traditional food production methods began a transition towards modern technology. This turning point was largely due to the work of Chinese exchange students and scholars. Trained in the United States, excited by new scientific knowledge, and motivated by the concept of extension education, they returned to their homeland and began implementing their ideas. As in agriculture, China has had millennia of experiential knowledge in aquaculture, but had built its first scientific fisheries research station in the 1930's in Shanghai, under the direction of a young scientist trained in the Yen Jin-Cornell program. (Ling, 1977). These and other technologies have continued to develop to meet the needs of the peoples of Asia and other continents, providing millions with sustainable sources of food which, in turn, laid the foundation for modernization.

Through the years, adult education has undergone phenomenal growth, expanding into a great range of subject areas. Today, continuing education is a major force world-wide, taking the lead as the way most people learn, anywhere. Overall, making practical application of academic knowledge has remained central to the mission of continuing education.

The new century will bring great challenges as well as opportunities to create and re-create ways to educate the adult public. Trends in higher education in the United States indicate increasing need for non-degree, continuing education and for new ways to teach and learn... a reflection of the many changes in the social, economic, and demographic make-up of our evolving society. Houston, as a dynamic metropolis, presents a complex set of trends. Asian-Americans as a small but fast-growing sector can be beneficiaries of continuing education to become more knowledgeable, better trained, and more effective participants in the American society. This paper will first

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examine some special characteristics of this emerging minority group, then address two particularly important issues that pertain to Asian-Americans: communications skills and ethnic relations.

II. Asian-Americans: A Profile

Trends in Demography

Trends in our society's population indicate rapid changes in significant ways. By the year 2000, as projected by the Bureau of the Census, the total population of the United States will reach 276.4 million, an increase from 248.7 million in 1990. One of the fastest growing minority groups in the United States is the Asian-American population which doubled between 1980 and 1990 from 1.5% of the total population to nearly 3% (Bryant, 1992). The growth has been particularly pronounced in the West and East coasts and in some areas in the Southwest. A city of Houston survey showed 4.1% of its population was Asian-American in 1992 and it is projected to increase to 7.2% by the year 2000. Immigration is by far the largest source for the growing Asian population. A recent survey conducted by sociologist Stephen Klineberg (1996a) shows a remarkable 90% of Asian adults in the Houston-area Harris County are first generation immigrants (See Table 1).

Formal Education

As a group, the Asian-American population is very well-educated. Recent data show that 56% (compared to 41% of Anglos) of Asian-Americans in Houston have college degrees including 20% who have studied in graduate work (Klineberg, 1996b). Among Asian-Americans of Chinese origins (Taiwan and China) 43% of them cited the pursuit of education as the primary reason for their (or their parents') immigration into the United States. Asians who have immigrated as refugees of war such as the Vietnamese are mixed in their educational background and are, overall, less well educated (Klineberg, 1996c). Given the opportunity, however, second generation Vietnamese are demonstrating an impressive rise on the educational ladder. As a group, Asians are 14% more likely to pursue a persistence educational track than the whites by starting college immediately after high school (Carroll, 1989); and they represent more than 16% of the post-graduate enrollments (Wilson and Carter, 1988).

Job Equity

Though the above data indicate a high proportion of Asian enrollment in formal higher education, closer examination reveals that they are not equivalently represented in higher level jobs. For example, according to the 1990 census, Asian-Americans make up 4.3% of all professionals in the USA but occupy only 1.4% of the high-ranking executive, administrative, and leadership positions in corporate America (Klineberg, 1996d). Given the fact that the great majority of Asian-Americans are new immigrants, the most basic obstacles in their professional growth are problems associated with language and acculturation.

First-generation Asian-Americans cope with their handicaps by concentrating on scientific/technical professions where language and cultural skills are less critical than in such professions as law or management. Those who cannot make the adjustments generally take up lower-level jobs or, in recent years, become involved in self-sufficient small businesses.

Attitudes and Perceptions

A recent study on the Houston area Asian-American population indicates that they are the most optimistic group among Anglos, Blacks and Hispanics in their outlook for the future (Klineberg, 1996e) and they tend to perceive a lesser degree of racial discrimination compared to the perceptions of the other minority groups (See Table 2).

Being well educated and as new comers, Asian-Americans show a comparatively positive attitude towards life in the United States and take a more rational view of their status as members of a minority group. Rather than attributing disparities too readily to racial discrimination, many first-generation Asian-Americans are likely to see their obstacles as temporary, reasonable problems and take positive action to overcome them by their own resources, i.e. hard work, patience, family unity, intra-ethnic networking, and, for many, more education. In fact, their relatively positive racial purview is supported by data that show Asian-Americans who grew up in the United States actually do get higher-level jobs and do earn more than their first-generation immigrant counterparts, in spite of the fact they also fall appreciably behind in pursuing college education and graduate studies (See Table 1).

Ethnic Relations

Nevertheless, this is not to say that other racial groups view their relations with the Asians in a reciprocal manner. In fact, Klineberg's studies in 1996 (See Table 2) show that Asians consistently viewed their relations with other racial groups more positively than the reverse. The most negative of all inter-racial ratings were given by African-Americans to the Black-Asian relationship. This is a shocking statistic in view of the fact that African-Americans rated their relationship with the Whites (historical racial antagonists) and the Hispanics (long-time economic competitors) superior to their relationship with Asians (a very small and new group). Furthermore, Hispanics also rated their relationships with Asians the most negative, followed by the Blacks and Anglos. The Whites rated their relationship with Asians somewhat better than with the Hispanics, followed by the Blacks. Whatever the reasons for these negative perceptions, their significance must not be ignored.

III. Continuing Higher Education and the Asian-American

In addition to language training for non-native speakers of English, Asian-Americans from cultural backgrounds different from the American norm also need to conscientiously engage in activities that would give them the cultural awareness and the social skills to perform (and be perceived) as good partners in a racially diverse America.

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Given such needs, the author proposes some venues in continuing education that can help meet them: (1) Incorporate cultural orientation into English language training. (2) Design continuing higher education programs for the public that raise intercultural appreciation. (3) Offer training programs and workshops in communication skills, business etiquette, and cross-cultural sensitivity (See Table 3).

Language and Communication Skills

The English language has become the language of science and technology, and the medium for international discourse. For the millions of non-native-speakers of English, it is a matter of necessity to learn English as a second language (ESL). In the United States, continuing education has quickly responded to the many needs and demands associated with ESL training by launching a wide range of research and development in curricula, teaching techniques, new delivery systems, and expanded resources and support. Asian immigrants, though many are well-educated, often have difficulties with the English language, especially speaking and writing at the professional level.

In assessing the efficacy of ESL methodology, educators need to understand that generic ESL methodology does not address specific linguistic differences or study habits. For example, peoples whose first language is Chinese are visually oriented; the Chinese ideogram being a graphic representation of meaning. The learning process, instilled from childhood, is heavily visually-dependent and involves much memorization. In contrast the English language is based on sound as the primary conveyer of meaning. From this point of view, teaching methods in ESL, that are based on audio information and deliberately devoid of visual messages, present significant difficulties to students reared on a visual language and different study habits. There is a real need for innovative methods to teach English that can build upon, rather than frustrate, cultural-linguistic orientations of Asian-Americans who have already proven their ability to learn, though in a different way.

Verbal articulation, set in the very early years of human development, is nearly impossible to alter in later years. Rather than straining for "accent reduction," the adult learner can be better served by focusing on how to be understood. Students can conceivably attain functional comprehensibility without achieving accent correction. An example of a great communicator is former Secretary of State Dr. Henry Kissinger who speaks with a heavy Germanic accent but with undisputed clarity. One of the speech habits of Asians is the tendency to drop word endings ("swallow their words"). Language laboratories with audio and visual equipment are particularly effective in helping students hear and see speech patterns and practice improvements.

Training in non-verbal communication is particularly important in cross-cultural situations. Behaviors of different sorts can convey varied messages, as intended or misinterpreted, e.g. facial expressions, body language, tone of voice, mannerisms, dress, public demeanor, social and business etiquette, etc.

Content of educational materials can be specially designed to teach English and social awareness at the same time. Curriculum planners, writers and teachers can all help build into the ESL experience information that would guide Asian-Americans to behave in

a socially compatible manner, increase their appreciation of other cultures, and provide new understanding of themselves from the perspective of the larger society.

Ethnic Harmony

By far the most important and urgent issue that will impact the future of Asians in America is racial relations. The inevitable consequences of growth of a population are visibility, competition, and the danger of conflict. Asian-Americans will come face to face with problems of ethnic relations that can be resolved only as well as they are able to recognize, understand, and work with diverse points of views and attitudes. The negative perceptions of Asians reported by other minority groups may be based as easily on cultural naiveté as on insensitivity. Nonetheless, the fact that ethnic relations problems exist indicates the need to identify the nature of the problems and find solutions. It is imperative to find ways for Asians to become more acculturated into the whole realm of the American society. Conversely, it would be well for the community at large to better understand the Asians. More studies and surveys are required to elucidate the intricacies of ethnic relations. We also need public figures, the media, and professional and community leaders to help raise awareness.

Continuing education is one way to effect cross-cultural understanding. Many programs offer cultural studies, from politics and economics to business etiquette and ethnic sensitivity. Courses that give historical perspectives on social phenomena are particularly enlightening. On the lighter side, there are numerous events and educational opportunities where all can share the richness, beauty, and humor of diverse cultures. The School of Continuing Studies of Rice University, for example, makes a conscientious effort to provide the public with high quality programs that promote cross-cultural appreciation and communication (See Table 3).

The old Chinese adage from Sun Tze, "Know yourself and understand others" can be the strategy to turn potentially destructive racist wars into harmonious racial relationships.

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Table 1. (Klineberg, 1996a)

THE CONSEQUENCES OF HAVING GROWN UP IN THE UNITED STATES VS. HAVING EMIGRATED AS AN ADULT, AMONG ASIANS AND HISPANICS

		ASIANS			HISPANICS		
		Grew up in U.S. (130)	Came as Adult (368)	All Asians (500)	Grew up in U.S. (222)	Came as Adult (199)	All Hispanics (429)
MIGRATION, SOCIOECONOMIC STATUS.							
1. Were you born in the United States?	Yes	38%	- - %	10%	81%	3%	45%
	No	62	100	90	19	97	56
2. Were your parents born in the U.S.?	Yes, at least one	4%	1%	4%	54%	2%	39%
	No, neither of them	96	99	96	46	98	61
3. Highest grade of school or year of college completed:	High school or less	25%	26%	25%	57%	79%	67%
	Some college	26	16	19	30	13	22
	B.A. degree or more	49	58	56	13	9	11
4. [IF WORKING:] What is your specific occupation?	Professional, Managerial	43%	32%	35%	23%	13%	19%
	Technical, Sales, Services	50	53	52	60	42	52
	Production, Laborers	7	15	13	18	45	30
5. Household income in 1994, for all members of household:	Less than $25,000	30%	35%	34%	35%	77%	55%
	$25,000 to $50,000	34	33	33	39	21	30
	More than $50,000	36	32	33	27	2	15
ASSIMILATION PATTERNS.							
6. Interview was conducted in:	English	85%	67%	72%	91%	12%	54%
	Asian Lang., Spanish	15	33	28	9	88	46
7. How often speak English at work?	Always	87%	78%	80%	69%	20%	47%
	Most, Some, Never	13	22	20	31	80	53
8. Do you think of yourself as primarily:	Asian/Hispanic	13%	38%	32%	27%	86%	55%
	Both equally	55	48	50	45	9	28
	American	31	11	16	28	4	17
9. Are you an American citizen?	Yes	89%	56%	65%	92%	16%	57%
	No	11	44	35	8	84	43
10. How often in past year participated in meetings of (ethnic) organization?	Very often	11%	14%	13%	6%	4%	5%
	Occasionally	25	41	37	23	12	18
	Never	65	44	49	70	84	76
11. How often participated in an (ethnic) holiday or cultural event?	Very often	30%	33%	32%	21%	8%	15%
	Occasionally	43	47	46	44	25	35
	Never	27	20	22	35	66	50
12. How often made special effort to teach children about ethnic background?	Very often	24%	41%	37%	26%	15%	20%
	Occasionally	29	28	28	39	27	33
	Never	43	27	31	35	57	46
13. How often contacted friends or relatives in country of origin?	Very often	31%	53%	47%	28%	43%	36%
	Occasionally	38	38	38	30	39	35
	Never	32	8	14	42	18	29

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Table 2. (Klineberg, 1996f)

ASSESSMENTS OF ETHNIC RELATIONS IN HOUSTON

			ANGLOS (N=447)	BLACKS (N=447)	HISPANICS (N=429)	ASIANS (N=500)	ALL Rs (N=1823)
1.	Ratings of "relations among ethnic groups in the Houston area":	Excel., Good	30%	20%	28%	34%	28%
		Fair	49	49	41	44	46
		Poor	18	27	23	14	20
2.	Ratings (10-pt scale) of relations between Blacks and Asians in the Houston area:	Low (1-4)	--	43%	--	31%	37%
		Medium (5-6)	--	34	--	36	35
		High (7-10)	--	16	--	26	21
		Mean rating:		4.432		5.210	4.844
3.	Ratings (10-pt scale) of relations between Anglos and Blacks in the Houston area:	Low (1-4)	25%	32%	--	--	28%
		Medium (5-6)	43	42	--	--	43
		High (7-10)	27	22	--	--	25
		Mean rating:	5.446	5.019			5.234
4.	Ratings (10-pt scale) of relations between Asians and Hispanics in the Houston area:	Low (1-4)	--	--	28%	20%	23%
		Medium (5-6)	--	--	37	43	39
		High (7-10)	--	--	22	37	29
		Mean rating:			5.117	5.759	5.473
5.	Ratings (10-pt scale) of relations between Blacks and Hispanics in the Houston area:	Low (1-4)	--	21%	28%	--	25%
		Medium (5-6)	--	38	38	--	38
		High (7-10)	--	37	29	--	33
		Mean rating:		5.749	5.320		5.540
6.	Ratings (10-pt scale) of relations between Anglos and Hispanics in the Houston area:	Low (1-4)	18%	--	23%	--	20%
		Medium (5-6)	42	--	35	--	38
		High (7-10)	36	--	37	--	37
		Mean rating:	5.803		5.741		5.773
7.	Ratings (10-pt scale) of relations between Asians and Anglos in the Houston area:	Low (1-4)	20%	--	--	11%	15%
		Medium (5-6)	31	--	--	33	32
		High (7-10)	41	--	--	51	46
		Mean rating:	5.917			6.423	6.187
8.	Average ratings given to the three inter-ethnic relationships in the Houston area:	Low (1.0-4.7)	21%	37%	30%	25%	28%
		Medium (5.0-6.7)	46	44	38	46	44
		High (7.0-10)	27	15	29	29	25
		Mean rating:	5.722	5.067	5.394	5.800	5.510

Table 3. Examples of continuing studies programs designed for intercultural appreciation (Rice)

America in the 1960's... The history of the Civil Rights movement will impact America for ever. In the face of violence and racial strife, there is unity for most Americans as well as an awakening in the new generation.

*Understanding NAFTA: The Journey Begins...*The North American Trade Agreement heralds new economic, geopolitical and intercultural relationships. Learn about the global implications for new trade partners in North America, Europe, Asia and, in particular, Texas as the gateway to Mexico.

*Transformation of Europe: Fifty Years after World War II...*The demise of the Soviet Union and the creation of the European Union have re-shaped the economic and political landscape of Europe and impacted recent events.

Introduction to African Civilization... Learn about the many facets of Africa, the immense grandeur of its land and the sharp contrasts in the glories and tragedies of its history. Understand the present by learning about Africa's past in context of its peoples, indigenous and transplanted.

Introduction to Shi'ite Islam... Islam, one of the three great monotheistic religions of the world reaches deeply into the cultures of many peoples. What are the basic beliefs and practices of the Shi'ite Muslims?

Humanity and Inhumanity: the Holocaust in Perspective... How could the horrific realities of anti-Semitism occur in culturally advanced societies? What meaning does the ideology of racial superiority hold for the world today?

Latin American Literature: Voices and Visions... The beauty and power of words by literary giants, including Nobel Laureates, offer an introduction to the Latin American experience through literature.

*Introduction to Asia: The Buddhist Traditions...*We in the West, whatever our origins or beliefs, may begin to understand the East by first exploring Buddhism, the single most important common denominator of the many peoples of Asia and their cultures.

*Introduction to Asia...*China's Cultural Heritage, Japan and the West, Passage to India, Festival Indonesia, Korea: A History in the Making, etc.

*Effective Communication...*Workshops in English and other languages, grammar review, personal and business writing, creative writing, psychology of communication, public speaking, presentation skills, art of negotiation, cultural and gender sensitivity, etc.

Cross-Cultural Communication and Negotiation... Diplomacy, business, scientific/educational exchange, etc. —every aspect of life in a multi-ethnic world requires cross-cultural understanding and respect. For successful relationships, begin with commonly accepted standards for etiquette, business practices, public relations; then, communicate and negotiate accordingly.

New Directions for Education: Minister Jin Wu's Initiatives to Rebuild Taiwan's Schools

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Many in the Republic of China (ROC) on Taiwan realize that the current educational system needs to be drastically overhauled in order to prepare our children to meet the challenges of the 21st century. The difficulty lies in reaching a consensus on what to change and how to change. The ROC Ministry of Education therefore convened a National Educational Conference devoted to these issues in June, 1994. Also in 1994, an independent non-governmental Council on Education Reform was formed. These two mechanisms have been utilized to get broad input from education professionals as well as the public about the direction our educational system should take. Since then education has become a national number one priority and significant reform efforts are underway. In late 1996, the Council on Education Reform submitted its final report. This report outlined five goals: educational deregulation; success for every student; easy access to learning at all levels; commitment to quality in education; and establishment of a lifelong learning society. To achieve these goals, an interministerial education reform committee was organized in February 1997, and about US$ one billion for fiscal year 1998, earmarked.

Dr. Jin Wu, who assumed the position of Minister of Education in June 1996, has increased the momentum in improving Taiwan's schools at all levels. Although some of Minister Wu's "breaking the mold" reform efforts are controversial, we believe that we are on the right track in providing unique and innovative educational opportunities for our children. Minister Wu has also vigorously responded to the five lofty goals and priorities for action set forth by the Council on Education Reform. He has indicated that the Ministry of Education concurs with the innovative ideas proposed by the Council and intends to carry out all the reforms proposed. If ever there was a time for a great era of education in Taiwan, it is now.

This report is intended to share with you a more comprehensive approach to educational reform than ever before initiated in Taiwan. (Attached please find a chart of Taiwan's current school system structure for your reference.)

Kindergarten Education

Five-Year-Olds' Enrollment in Kindergarten -- To ensure that as many children as possible start school ready to learn, our goal is for over 80% of all five-year-olds to be enrolled in kindergarten programs by the year 2000. Although there are approximately 3000 public and private kindergartens islandwide, this number is still not sufficient to achieve this goal. Organizations in the private sector are being encouraged to open more kindergartens to provide additional opportunities for our five-year-olds.

Nine-Year Compulsory Education

"Small School, Small Class" Policy To ensure that every student receives quality education, the "small school, small class" approach has become one of Minister Wu's major policies. Beginning the academic year of 1998-1999, there will be a significant reduction in class size (number of students per class) for all grades, 1st through 6th, and many more teachers will be hired. To meet the growing demand for new teachers, many universities will offer post-graduate teacher training programs to bachelor's degree holders who wish to teach at the elementary school level.

Community / School Partnerships - Minister Wu would like to develop partnership relationships between schools and businesses. He plans to allow businesses to utilize space in elementary school classrooms for educational purposes in the

evenings and on weekends, in exchange for improvement of school facilities. Through this mutually rewarding relationship, schools can improve instructional facilities, while businesses can benefit by renting less expensive and quality spaces for their programs.

Integrated Curriculum Framework New curricula for the next century will be designed for 1st through 9th grades of the current nine-year compulsory education system within a couple of years. The new curriculum will emphasize interdisciplinary teaching, a shorter school day, and improvement of teaching materials, all aimed at eliminating students' unnecessary stress and promoting a positive learning environment.

Equal Access to Education for Students with Disabilities Minister Wu would like to see more educational facilities built for students with disabilities, and a policy of equal access to education for students with disabilities. According to a Report on Education for Individuals with Disabilities in the Republic of China, released in May 1996, the Ministry of Education plans to map out for these students special educational policies based upon such as concepts as mainstreaming, mixed classrooms, and obstacle-free environments.

Secondary Education

Designated Local District Policy for High Schools and Vocational High Schools Minister Wu has made it a priority to designate certain local geographic districts served by every high school and vocational high school. In order to equalize educational resources, and to relieve students of the tremendous stress caused by compulsory high school and vocational high school entrance exams, Taiwan plans to abolish these exams, and to let all 9th graders automatically enter schools in their own local school districts by the year 2000.

Promotion of "Comprehensive High School" Comprehensive high school, an alternative high school with combined academic and vocational programs is being under experimentation and intensive study by the Ministry of Education. It will be a growing trend, and will be expanded in our secondary education system aced upon the recent strong recommendation of the Council on Education Reform. The ratio of student enrollment at high schools and vocational high schools will be changed from the current 3:7 ratio to a 5:5 ratio, to provide students with more opportunities for high school education with emphasis on flexible and comprehensive programs.

New Balanced Curriculum for High Schools High schools are expected to emphasize the development of student knowledge and skills in the humanities and the sciences. Beginning in the academic year of 1998-1999, curricula at all types of high schools will no longer be divided into two separate categories of humanities and sciences. A new integrated curriculum will be offered to all students. During that same academic year, over four hundred high schools and vocational high schools will put into practice a flexible system of accelerated courses for gifted students and extended courses for slow learners, and allowing students who do not pass to repeat required subjects. Alternative flexible high schools organized by both number of credits satisfied and years completed, will enable students to graduate at an earlier time if they complete minimum required credits regulated by the schools. We wish to encourage students to learn in a positive and enjoyable school environment, tailored to their individual learning capacity and speed.

Open Policy for Textbooks In the past, school textbooks were produced and commissioned for publication by the Ministry of Education. Since the academic year of 1996, textbooks for elementary schools have been gradually privatized. Minister Wu would further allow textbooks for junior and high schools to be privatized by the year 2000. The production and publication of textbooks for junior high and high schools will be gradually privatized, effective the academic year of 1999-2000. However, all textbooks must be produced based upon curriculum standards set by the Ministry of Education, and be approved before they go on the market.

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Teacher Education

Traditionally, the responsibility of preparing elementary and secondary school teachers fell to three universities and nine teachers' colleges. All teacher training courses, including education courses and specific teaching subjects (i.e. mathematics, English, etc.), were regulated by the Ministry of Education. Not long ago, other universities were authorized to set up teacher education programs to train school teachers. This marks a big step forward. Due to greater demand for freedom, Minister Wu declared that universities will be given further liberty to determine the content of their training courses in specific teaching subjects, as long as they are recognized as accredited courses by the appropriate education professional organizations. However, training courses in education are still regulated by the Ministry of Education.

Vocational and Technical Education

No Entrance Exams to Vocational High Schools The plan of no entrance exams to vocational high schools will be implemented as early as the academic year of 1998-1999. Taiwan will be divided into 15 districts and interested students will be able to apply for admission to the vocational schools within their chosen district. This plan applies to students from junior high schools. There are well over two hundred vocational high schools throughout Taiwan. Now is the time to implement this "no entrance exam" plan, allowing all students to attend designated local district high schools and vocational high schools. This plan will lay the foundation for extension of compulsory education in Taiwan from the present nine years to twelve years in the near future.

Improving Technical Education System In past years, about 70% of all students went to vocational high schools while 30% of students chose to study at academic high schools. Unfortunately, vocational high school graduates had little access to higher levels of learning in technology. Minister Wu would like to improve the current technical education system, and make it more accessible to these students. Plans are under way to increase the number of four-year technical colleges from 7 to 50 by the year 2000. Technical colleges will be further upgraded to technical universities if they meet certain requirements. Ultimately, a complete, flexible technical education system, including technical universities, technical colleges, community colleges, junior colleges, vocation high schools and vocational training programs at junior high schools, will be established to provide vastly expanded educational opportunities to students on the vocational/ technical path.

Technical Skills Certification Technical skills certification will be strengthened and emphasized. People with one of three levels of technical certificates and a certain number of years of work experience will be eligible to pursue advanced studies if they pass relevant exams. For example, someone with the lowest-level technical certificate and five years of work experience will be allowed to take exams and study at a two-year junior college, four-year technical college or four-year university. This sends a clear message to students and the public that technical certificates and diplomas will be equally valued in our society.

Higher Education

Increased Opportunities for College Education In addition to current college joint entrance exams, a variety of other factors will be added to the college application process. These include teacher recommendations for admission, and special consideration for admission to students who excel in specific subjects, or in athletics, students with disabilities, and vocational high school graduates. Minister Wu has proposed an initiative to increase opportunities for college education by setting up a new

public/private university or university branch campus. Also, a "second chance" initiative, still on the drawing board, would provide opportunities for students who are not accepted to colleges initially to be placed on a waiting list for later acceptance.

University Fund Effective fiscal year 1998, every university and college, public or private will be requested to form a university fund. This means that each university will be required to raise part of its total funding, up to 30%. University funds may be derived from private donations, research projects and other sources.

Tuition and Fees University tuition and fees in Taiwan are significantly lower than those in other industrialized countries. Statistics show that average tuition in Taiwan is only one-fifth of average tuition in the U.S., for example. The Ministry of Education is planning to reasonably increase tuition and fees over the next few years. Tuition and fees of public and private universities will be gradually adjusted to the ratio of 1:2 for the academic year of 1999-2000. In addition, a scholarship programs based on merit and/or need will be made available for hard-working undergraduate and graduate students.

Subsidies for Private Universities To improve the quality of private institutions of higher learning, the Ministry of Education plans to subsidize them, providing up to 20% of their total funding within three years.

Academic Department and College-Based Selection Approach Most high school graduates currently opt to take college joint entrance exams to attend prestigious universities no matter what their particular field of interest is. Minister Wu has tried hard to reverse this tendency and to convince students and the public to choose academic departments as well as universities. By doing so, students are more likely to pursue what they are genuinely interested in studying. In the spring of 1997, the Ministry of Education launched a "get to know college programs" information campaign across the nation. Eighteen university fairs were held for high school students, teachers and the public in every county. University fairs further went on the Internet, and provided a variety of information on higher learning institutions to interested people. Seminars on university programs and career planning were held at over two hundred high schools in Taiwan. In addition, two brochures, titled "University Profiles" and "Tips to Select University Programs" were published and widely distributed to high school students.

Degree Programs to be Built in Continuing Education Programs --- To encourage life-long learning for people of all ages, Minister Wu would allow university continuing education programs to offer degrees as well. This new initiative should to be in place by the year 2000. Continuing, technical and general education systems, which are being reconstructed will enable all of our citizens to gain access to higher education and training, and strengthen the Nation's ability to compete in the global economy.

Adult Education

Adults will be encouraged to participate in continuing education in order to increase their productivity and quality of life. New efforts are being made in the development of distance learning opportunities and through the use of the Internet, which will expand methods of continuing education available to adults. Basic adult education programs and special night schools will be set up to combat illiteracy. Our goal is to reduce the adult illiteracy rate to less than 2% within five years.

International Education

Before Dr. Jin Wu became Education Minister, he headed a national university and had a vision of internationalizing his campus. Now he proposes to establish Taiwan as a major education center in the Asian Pacific region, with the intent of aggressively recruiting international students to study in Taiwan. This plan will first focus on graduate students and then expand to include undergraduates. The Ministry of

Education will organize a higher and technical education fair which would travel to various nations in the southeast Asia in order to recruit students to study in Taiwan.

In light of Minister Wu's bold idea, some universities such as National Taiwan Normal University, plan to accept applications from international students to pursue advanced studies including Ph.D., master and bachelor degree programs in Taiwan this year. Universities believe that courses offered in foreign languages such as English will play a critical role in the success of establishing Taiwan as a major education center. The Bureau of International Cultural and Educational Relations, Ministry of Education has also unveiled a plan to attract up to 10,000 foreign students by the year 2,000, as opposed to the current 5,596 enrolled. Of course, students require facilities, and plans for the establishment of a new large-scale Chinese language center are already in the works.

Through his education initiatives, Minister Wu gives us a bold vision of what Taiwan education can become. The next step is for all of us to work together to translate these challenges into action. Minister Wu has also planned a series of workshops for 140,000 classroom teachers nationwide within a year. The workshops are designed to encourage teachers to use progressive teaching methods, to get teachers' input and to get teachers more involved in education reform. Minister Wu and his colleagues also meet with local educators, parents and students each week to discuss how to educate our children, and teach them a love of learning, in addition to acquiring a degree or a new skill. Education is a means as well as an end, and we aim to come together for the good of our children to make Taiwan education a joyful, productive process.

Trends, Policies, and Resources: Joint Efforts for Young Political Leadership Training

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Abstract

There is a rapidly growing need for more young Chinese Americans to get involved in the mainstream political process. Too many legislative bills are passed at local, state, and federal levels without the adequate voice of Chinese Americans.

Ethnic community organizations and parents should collaborate with local educational, civil, and political groups for the training of our younger generation. Suggestions for both Chinese-American organizations and parents are presented. All the involved parties will politically benefit from the joint efforts. Don't underestimate is strength and impact.

教育改革中教師應扮演的角色

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教育改革的浪潮正在美國，中國和台灣如火如荼的進行中。可是以往的教育改革大多注重在制度上的調整，如美國在八十年代的改革增設了 middle school (6~7 年級) 和 site based management system ，如台灣的開放一般大專院校設立教育學程及法令鬆綁的工作，而忽略了基層教育工作人員的進修及成長的過程。其實，站在第一線的班級教師，乃是肩負現階段教育改革成敗的使命。在科技化地球村的教育理念日新萌芽和成長的時代齒輪運行中，教師應調整和轉變在教與學過程中應扮演的角色：

1. Teacher as Learner，教師也是學習者。優秀的教師一定也是出色的學生，在教學相長之中日日進步，自己就是 Perpetual Learner/Lifelong Learner。
2. Presenter as Facilitator ，教師不僅善長傳遞知識，也要知道如何去輔導學生如何自己學習。
3. Leader as Collaborator ，教師不僅是有效的領導者，也是願意與人分工合作的伙伴。
4. Answer Provider as Question Generator ，教師不僅提供答案，更會啓發、探索問題。

以上簡單略舉四種教師在教育改革演變過程中應扮演的角色。其實，教學乃是良心事業，教師應本著職業倫理 (professional ethic codes)從事每日誨人的百年樹人工作而奉獻心力。

Educational Reform: the Student's Perspective

Lilly Lee Chen
Rice University

1. Problem: cultural gaps between parents and the mainstream population

In a 1997 May issue of Time magazine there is a book review article, in which the author introduced three "powerful debut novels by Asian-Americans to arrive in bookstores lately". The author observes that the three books share some themes: "all of them deal with parents and children in conflict over such issues as cultural and sexual identity."

Granted, parents and children in conflict is not a problem unique to Chinese Americans, and the fact that all these three novels deal with child-parental conflicts may simply reflect the publishers' preference for this kind of theme for the purposes of the market. But my own experience of years of interacting with college students tells me that the identity conflict is a big issue in the lives of the great majority of young Chinese Americans. It is a weightier issue for Chinese Americans than for their other contemporaries.

The problem boils down to one fundamental question: Are they allowed to have their own identity? The answer, of course, is: yes, they are. They have their own identity as Chinese Americans in this land of theirs. Other papers in this conference may discuss how they should act, how to assert their rights politically, etc. I will only touch upon the question of how we as teachers and parents should act to help them maintain their own identity. The burden is not on them but on us. I will say something about the family first and then about the school, especially college.

2. Family

Parents and family hold the key to the door that allows a child to explore his world and to see his self-image. As a reader wrote in a reader's opinion section in the Houston Chronicle (August 4, 1997): "The inculcation of a sense of self-worth and self-esteem begins at birth, for the family is the first and most influential teacher."

The conflict resulting from cultural gaps between parents and children among Chinese Americans is an old issue, much discussed in the community, media, articles, etc. The most commonly shared complaint from the children is that they feel that they cannot live up to parents' expectations.

They feel that it is not okay for them to fail, whether it is a matter of making the tennis team or being cast in a school play, not to mention the tough competition over getting accepted to prestigious schools. For children to live through their most precious and, supposedly, the only carefree period of their lives in the anxiety that they are not good enough is not what any parent consciously wants. We inadvertently are the source of their anxiety and their problems.

Students sometimes sit in my office and talk about their problems. A common theme is that they love their parents and want them to be happy and proud of them, but they cannot discuss with them issues that are uppermost in their mind at the moment, e.g. their boy friend/girl friend, their course work, what they really want out of life. Why? Because parents don't and won't understand. They lay this guilt trip on you about how much they have sacrificed for you. In short, they do their share and on your end you do what you are supposed to do, i.e. what they have laid out for you.

Perhaps we are too uptight as parents and in the process cause our kids to lose their identity. We have to learn how to let go of them. We need to unwind or even re-educate ourselves. Perhaps we think we are too old to go to school. There are community activities, grants and foundation money that can help us in this regard. Community centers can offer classes for parents on how to cope with the new society, to understand the

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society, with the aim of understanding the children's world. Some parents have this superiority complex that WE came from a civilization of several thousand years of history. Unhappy parents who are dissatisfied with their children are very unlikely to have happy children.

Families can have group gatherings and discussion meetings. Self-awareness programs for parents might be initiated. They can be of various kinds, centering around different themes. For example: American value awareness programs (e.g. discussing a film from the point of view of the parent-child relationship), culture critiquing sessions, the joy of being a parent, the frustration of being a parent, what my kids have done right, children's sessions, listening to children complaining/complimenting other parents (not listening to your own children complaining about you in public, of course), the funny filial duty or love from within, etc. Invite Caucasian or other ethnic group parents to give a talk or to be in the discussion group. Explore how they express love for their children. We do a disservice to ourselves by thinking that we, the Chinese parents, are the best parents and we know what we are doing. One learns a great deal about oneself while listening to or commenting on others.

3. School/college

College courses in Asian Studies reflect our preferences, rather than theirs. We accord priority to teaching the classics, because it represents the best of the Chinese legacy, when what they are most concerned about and interested in are the present state of affairs and their current roles and problems in this country of theirs. It is presumptuous of us to brand theirs as a 'rootless' generation. To help them is to understand why they show such great enthusiasm and ask so many questions when the topic is China or Taiwan, as featured in current news headlines. Notice how positively they respond to such works as *the Woman Warrior* or *Joy Luck Club*, which many first generation Chinese dismiss as fantasy and deem to be of dubious value. We should make the 21st century curricula relevant to their lives -- in recognition and appreciation of the problems they face and in affirmation of who they are.

College academic programs should take the Chinese American identity of students into consideration. Students generally feel that many academic courses in Asian studies are interesting but also so remote in time and in thought, i.e. not really relevant to them. Many cultural elements they feel are either exotic, unreal or simply unacceptable from their own perspectives. Courses like this can be a platform for launching discussions and critical appraisals and give them opportunities to examine not only Chinese culture but themselves, their parents and relatives.

Chinese Classical literature can be discussed and critically examined from the Chinese point of view as well as their point of view as Chinese Americans. These courses serve as ground for exploration of differences in values and the reasons for the differences. Language courses should emphasize the utility of the subject matter as a living language which is as relevant and good for use in this country (such as on campus, in the family and among friends) as for people living on the other side of the Pacific Ocean.

In short, the emphasis is on relevance and the approach is critical and analytic. This encourages them to express who they are. Their opinions matter.

認識"老"教育, 建設"新"教育

喬龍慶

Abstract

中國文化獨自創建, 經五千年, 慢慢形成, 具有極強度的特性. 中國教育亦然, 中國文化最近一百多年來, 因受外來武力和文化的沖擊, 以致根本動搖. 中國教育亦然.

中國固有的教育理念與方法歷經數千年的反復應驗, 必有它不朽的貢獻. 自推翻滿清,建立民國, 爲普及教育, 中國政府制度採用西方教育制, 之後, 不斷吸取西方理念, 抄襲西方策略, 在一定程度上, 好比張冠李戴, 造成中國文化和國民教育功能失調, 社會秩序混亂.

社會各種問題, 不會自生, 都因人而生. 製造問題的是人, 解決問題的也該是人. 改變人的素質, 還得從教育起始. 然而, 中國文化看"人和人際關係"和西方文化看"人和人際關係"有許多根本上不同的觀念. 因此, 中國看待"教育"的理念和經驗和西方對待"教育"的理念與經驗也應該有別. 盲目的抄襲西方教育, 從某種程度上好比削足適履. 忽視中國固有教育哲學, 爲學方法, 教學技術, 教訓方法, 教師修養等, 有如捨本逐末.

今後中國教育如何振興, 如何步入軌道, 如何參考西方教育長處改進中國固有教育之不足, 尚待大家重視和努力. 更寄望協會兼具中西教育經驗的諸友, 共同研究, 整理, 更新, 和發展中國的新教育.

Emerging Issues and Trends in Postsecondary Education

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Abstract

Higher education in the United States is regarded as one of the best postsecondary systems in the world. For years, educators from other countries including those in Taiwan and mainland China have observed the development of the U.S. systems closely and in many cases tried to implement the U.S. strategies in their homeland. Therefore, it will be helpful for policymakers from other countries to identify trends and potential problems in the U.S. system so that they can make better decisions for their own systems. This presentation observes trends and emerging issues in U.S. postsecondary education and discusses how these issues are relevant to education reform in Taiwan. The discussion focuses on the following issues: (1) postsecondary education market and college entrance examination, (2) financing of higher education, (3) faculty tenure system, and (4) teacher education and teacher college.

Values of Physical Activities to the Growth and Development of Children and Youth Preference of Exercise Program

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Adopting a cultural-comparative approach, this presentation is to highlight the importance of physical activities to the well-being and advancement of Asian youth. Emphases are made upon cultural and social differences in the beliefs toward exercise and sport involvement between the East and the West. Researchers have generally suggested that regular participation in exercise and sport activities positively affect children in the physical, mental, and social domains.

The physiological benefits include improvement in bone density, tendon and ligament intensity, range of motion, lean body mass (muscular strength), and connective tissue strength; increases in cardiorespiratory efficiency, decreases in body fat; and projection against chronic disease. Improvement in psychological well-being have also been observed as a result of physical activities. Proper physical activities enhance a reduction in disempowering mental processes such as anxiety, depression, anger, and apathy as well as help increases in cognitive performance and social functioning.

Other positive effects of exercise in youth psychology include interests in exercise, achievement motivation, self-confidence, personal satisfaction, independence, and leadership. Although research addressing the social benefits of youth sport programs have been difficult to quantify, those involved in such programs contend that when structured with participants' overall personal development in mind, youth sport programs facilitate socially desirable values and attributes, such as teamwork, sportspersonship, fraternization, and self-discipline. Some researchers have asserted that sport involvement can minimize various socially unacceptable behaviors of participants: juvenile delinquency, aggression, and truancy. Involvement in sport competitions at the elite level has also served as a channel for social and economic advancement.

Furthermore, data from recent investigations revealed that more youth prefer the following seven physical activities: baseball, basketball, biking, gymnastics, ping-pong, skating, and swimming. Meanwhile, youth preference of physical activities is affected by their age, gender, school level, and ethnicity.

The Dimensions of Health

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Abstract

A review of the dimensions of health will be presented. Health includes many components: physical, mental, social, intellectual, environmental, and spiritual. This presentation will examine the relationship of these dimensions to one another and to several aspects of well-being, including self-esteem, depressive symptoms and social support. The point will be made that health depends not only upon the workings of an individuals body but also upon many aspects of the functioning of the mind. This presentation takes a holistic approach, one that looks at health and the individual as a whole, rather than part by part.

Individuals and groups who give leadership to the development of a health curriculum need to explore current concepts of health, health education, and the learner, and how all of these relate to the society in which the learner functions. The implications of these concepts provide the underpinnings of a curriculum that will give young people what they need to make decisions that lead them to high level of well being. Implications for planning and implementation of health education program will be discussed.

Aspects of Health and Spirituality

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Abstract

The multidimensionality of man has been acknowledged for many years. Man has been recognized as a being consisting of physical, cognitive, emotional, and spiritual aspects. In ancient times, wellness and the healing of diseases were thought of as an integrated process involving these four aspects. Many religions have specific protocols concerning health and healing that combine the physical with the spiritual. The Bible includes numerous references to miraculous cures when an afflicted person demonstrated faith. Jesus Christ was considered the Great Physician. In recent times, modern medical education tends to compartmentalize the human being into separate areas of body and spirit. However, much emphasis is now being placed on the importance of a person's spirituality and its impact on health. Much of the attention has accompanied the resurgence of new age religions and wholistic approaches to health. Scientists are now interested in quantifying the degree to which faith or spirituality affects a person's health. Observational studies indicate that persons with a religious affiliation tend to have better health. Perhaps this is due to the behavioral patterns espoused by most religious groups especially the prohibition of tobacco, alcohol, and illegal drugs. But more recently, a possible link between prayer and physical healing has been scientifically investigated and the conclusions appear promising. These developments deserve a closer investigation to determine if they indeed hold answers to some of the world's most perplexing medical problems.

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Psychological Perspectives of Chinese American Education

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Abstract

According to U. S. Bureau of the Census, there were 1,645,472 Chinese Americans in 1990. Of these, 69.3% were foreign born. The presenter will speak on her perceptions of the issues facing the education of Chinese and Chinese American students with special attention to their psychological problems.

Chinese people strongly emphasize education. Chinese students face great parental and peer pressure to perform as the "model minority". Instead of pursuing personal interests, Chinese students face a tremendous amount of pressure to major in something technical and lucrative such as medicine, engineering, law, or business. Chinese students often feel guilty, or feel like a failure if they are not interested in the above fields, do not study in nationally known universities, or do not do well academically.

Due to culture and language factors, Chinese students often experience biculrural conflicts, stereotyping, prejudice, and discrimination. They also experience the negative effects of their non-assertive nature. Dating concerns arise if they think their parents won't approve their dating choices (e.g., interracial relationships, dating before certain ages.) Spending long hours studying alone often leads to loneliness and social isolation.

The above academic and psycho-social problems, if not resolved, may lead to problems such as performance anxiety and depression, which are often exhibited as psychosomatic complaints such as stomach problems, or headaches, sleep disturbances, eating problems (e.g., loss of appetites or overeating), and fatigue. In severe cases these may lead to drug use of suicide.

Due to the concepts of mental health of the Chinese culture, Chinese students seldom seek professional help for their problem. They often approach family, friends, teachers for advice, or seek medical help for their physical symptoms. The presenter invites discussion on how we, as Chinese educators and researchers, can assess and address the needs and foster the development of well-rounded Chinese and Chinese American students.

Taiwanese and PRC Students' Ways of Coping with Stress in a U.S. University

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Abstract

This study's purpose was to explore the ways in which Chinese graduate students in a U.S. university cope with stress. Results indicated that differences existed between students from Taiwan and the PRC and between married and single Chinese students. No gender differences were found in this study. Both Taiwanese and PRC students underutilized counseling services because of their cultural belief that one must not wash one's dirty linen in public. Although both groups shared the same cultural root, their different economic and political home environments influenced their coping patterns.

Introduction

The Chinese-speaking population is growing rapidly in the United States, which includes People's Republic of China [PRC], Taiwan, Hong Kong, Malaysia, Singapore, etc. Existing studies include all Chinese-speaking subjects in the same classification, neglecting the differences in cultural norms, life style, and belief systems which do exist in these vastly different Chinese-speaking nations. Consequently, this study uses the Ways of Coping Questionnaire (WCQ) to investigate some selected variables, such as nationality, gender, and marital status, and their relationship to coping styles of graduate students from Taiwan and PRC studying in the United States.

Like all foreign students abroad, Chinese students in the United States are often confronted with the challenge of adjusting to new sets of behavioral expectations and personal roles. They encounter the following sources of stress. First, they experience all of the problems encountered by native students on university campuses, such as homesickness, relationship problems, and adjustment to an independent life style. Second, they face problems like all foreign students, which include issues related to language acquisition, immigration regulations, and culture shock that may lead to loneliness and personal stress (Aubrey, 1991; Cheng, Leong, & Geist, 1993).

Third, Chinese students--like other graduate students-- encounter stressful circumstances, such as difficulty in achieving social intimacy due to a lack of time and opportunity to develop interpersonal relationships, and fear of academic failure associated with trying to complete comprehensive examinations, theses, and doctoral dissertations (Whitman, Spendlove & Clark, 1985).

Additionally, unlike both native and all other foreign students, both Taiwanese and PRC graduate students are limited by their cultural upbringing that shaped their ways of coping with stress. For example, Chinese culture emphasizes "Not to wash one's dirty linen in public," encouraging the Chinese to keep and deal with personal or family problems within family members. Chinese culture also encourages people "to swallow one's anger and pride" and "to bear disgrace and a heavy burden" when they encounter stressful events. Chinese culture teaches that if someone can be patient when suffering a sorrow, then that person will become strong as a result. This paper discusses similarities between Taiwanese and PRC students in the United States (i.e., the fact that both

underutilize counseling services) and the ways that economic and political differences between the two groups influences their style of coping and their ability to cope.

Literature Review

Several studies (Abe & Zane, 1990; Cheng, et al., 1993; Ebbin & Blankenship, 1988; Sue & Sue, 1974) found that Chinese students studying in the U.S. report having higher levels of psychological problems than U.S. students. In spite of this fact, it is surprising to American professionals in the field of counseling that Chinese students underutilize the mental health services available either on the university campus or in the college community for coping with their stress and other psychological problems (Aubrey, 1991; Sue, 1977; Sue & Sue, 1974). Sue and Sue indicated that this surprising finding was due to factors unique to Chinese culture. The Chinese refrain from seeking counseling because they approach stress by perseverance (Leong, Mallinckrodt, & Krolj, 1990; Parr, Bradely, & Bingi, 1992). In addition, Chinese students resist self-disclosure more than U.S. students (Chen,1992). This causes Chinese students to hesitate to proceed to ask for help from the professional service system on campus.

Instead of seeking professional assistance, many Chinese students cope with stress by seeking social support from their family or from their cultural community (Webster & Fretz, 1978). Several studies found a positive association between social support and psychological well-being (Reifman & Dunkel-Schetter, 1990; Turner, 1981). Turner suggested that social support was most important for Chinese students during stressful situations. It appeared that married and single students had different ways of coping with stress. For example, Kuo and Tsai (1986) declared that successful established social support networks reduced psychological distress in Chinese students.

Mallinckrodt and Leong (1992) examined the role of gender in Chinese and other foreign graduate students' reactions to academic stress. These authors reported that female respondents were more depressed, more often anxious, and had poorer relations with faculty members than did male respondents. Mallinckrodt and Leong also suggested that most females assumed multiple roles such as employee, student, wife, and mother leading to increased personal stress. Gim, Atkinson, and Whiteley (1990) who studied Chinese and other Asians noted that females are more likely to seek counseling than males.

The different political and economic environments between Taiwan and PRC may shape the different coping patterns of these groups. For example, Feng (1991) interviewed students from the PRC and found that most of them were under heavy financial pressures and had to put considerable time into paid employment. Only few studies have examined the differences in political and financial status between Taiwan and PRC students that lead to differences in their ways of coping with stress. Keeping in mind the contrasting background of Taiwanese and PRC students--i.e., democratic versus communist and free market versus blocked borders--this study attempted to diagnose distinct patterns in seeking help between the two groups. This paper does not prove the reasons behind the differences between Taiwanese and PRC students' ways of coping with stress. But it suggests that further research in this area might point to the role that economics play in Chinese students' ways of coping with stress.

Methodology

Participants

The population of Chinese students at a land grant university in southern United States during the 1994 Spring semester was composed of 162 Chinese graduate students, 60 from Taiwan (37 males and 23 females) and 102 from PRC (74 males and 28 females). These students were asked to complete the WCQ to assess coping strategies.

Of the 162 students who were sent questionnaires, 109 scorable responses were returned with 45 of them from Taiwanese students (24 males and 21 females) (75%

response rate) and 64 from PRC students (47 males and 17 females) (63% response rate). Data on the marital status indicated that 74 (68%) were married and 35 (32%) were single. The mean age of respondents was 34 and most had lived in the United States between 2 and 3 years. Sixty-five percent of respondents were not aware of counseling services available on campus or did not know the location of the campus counseling center. Only 11 percent had ever used either career services or the counseling center. Sixty-three (85%) married students had their spouse living with them.

Measuring Instrument

In this study, The Ways of Coping Questionnaire (WCQ) (Folkman & Lazarus, 1988) was used to assess coping strategies. The WCQ is a 66-item questionnaire with eight subscales. Respondents were asked to think of the most stressful situation they had faced in the past week and to respond to statements representing coping strategies on a four-point Likert scale. Folkman and Lazarus determined that the Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the eight scales ranged from distancing (.61) to positive reappraisal (.79).

On the coping method of Chinese students, Chan (1994) determined that their activities could easily be classified into the eight subscales of the WCQ. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the total scale in this study was 0.89. It is evident that the WCQ is an appropriate and valid instrument for use in this study with Chinese university students.

Statistical Methods

This study used Hotelling's T^2 to test possible differences in ways of coping with stress between Taiwanese and PRC graduate students in a U.S. institution. Comparisons were made on three variables: nationality (Taiwan and PRC), gender, and marital status. A univariate F test was used to further test for differences individually on the eight subscales (see Table 1). The à priori level of significance set for all statistical tests was $p<.05$.

Results

This study found that Taiwanese and PRC graduate students are different in their ways of coping with stress, as seen in their scores on the WCQ, Hotelling's T^2 (8, 100) = 2.07, $p = .046$. The univariate F test (see Table 1) showed that Taiwanese students were more likely to use confrontive coping techniques, self-controlling, seeking social support and accepting responsibility than were the PRC graduate students.

This study found that gender was not a significant predictive factor identifying the way in which Taiwanese and PRC graduate students responded to a stressful situation, as seen in their scores on the WCQ, Hotelling's T^2 (8, 100) = 0.92, $p = .50$. This finding is similar to the conclusions of Folkman, Lazarus, Gruen, and DeLongis (1986) who found no specific gender differences in the varied coping strategies utilized by adults.

This study found that married and single Taiwanese and PRC graduate students are different in their ways of coping with stress, as seen in their scores on the WCQ, Hotelling's T^2 (8, 100) = 2.58, $p = .013$. Further tests (see Table 2) indicated that married Taiwanese and PRC graduate students were more likely to use planful problem solving and endorse positive reappraisal as a coping strategy than single Taiwanese and PRC graduate students.

Discussion

In this study, the Taiwanese graduate students apparently used coping efforts more often than did PRC graduate students. These efforts included altering their situation, regulating their feelings and actions, seeking social support, acknowledging their own role in the problem, and trying to put things right. Feng (1991) indicated that most students from PRC were under heavy financial pressures. Perhaps, the PRC students used work as

an outlet to either cope with or deny the stressful experiences they encountered more often than did students from Taiwan. This may explain why PRC graduate students in this study scored lower on all subscales than did Taiwanese graduate students (see Table 1).

This study found that married Taiwanese and PRC graduate students were more likely to analyze problems and create positive meanings for stressful experiences than single Taiwanese and PRC graduate students. Mallinckrodt and Leong (1992) suggested that the emotional support from families reduced stress symptoms for Chinese graduate students. Sixty-three (85%) of married students in this study had their spouse living with them and this emotional support may explain the different ways of coping with stress between married and single Taiwanese and PRC graduate students.IMPLICATIONS

Based on the findings of this study, student affairs professionals charged with helping Taiwanese and PRC graduate students coping with stress should consider the following suggestions. First, of these participants, only 11 percent had ever used either career services or the counseling center. It was evident that graduate students both from Taiwan and PRC were limited in their use of institutional resources to cope with their stress. Therefore, counseling professionals must work to make Taiwanese and PRC graduate students more aware of the variety of resources on campus. The function and location of the counseling center and the career services center should also be introduced and emphasized during the international students' orientation program. Providing the "Coping with Stress" workshop co-sponsored by Taiwanese, PRC students association or international student services office would provide Taiwanese and PRC students the opportunity to get help and also know more about how to use the services system to help themselves in coping with stress. In addition, counselors should be trained to use the counseling skills which fit Chinese culture when working with Chinese students. For example, a Chinese student will require more direction and coaxing in order to open up.

Second, it was evident that Taiwanese and PRC graduate students in this study preferred coping with stress by themselves. For example, planful problem solving, self-control, and accepting responsibility were favored. They were less likely to use escape-avoidance in their problem solving strategies when encountering stress. Since the problem of language acquisition is one of the sources of stress (Aubrey, 1991; Cheng, et al., 1993), brochures using the Chinese language would be valuable to the students on personal methods of effective coping with stress or problems.

Third, student affairs professionals should be aware of the different needs and traits of the Taiwanese versus the PRC student population due to the fact that they come from different political and economic backgrounds. For example, a student from the PRC may need to work in addition to attending graduate school, leaving less leisure time and therefore less energy to cope with stress. The counseling professional must be aware of such a student's limitations as opposed to a Taiwanese student whose financial situation is more stable. According to their varying traits and needs, counselors ought to design and provide services to better fit their individual needs and improve their adjustment to university life in the U.S.

Fourth, it is evident that single Taiwanese and PRC graduate students in this study lack social support more than married students. Since several studies suggested that social support was most important for Chinese students in reducing psychological stress (Turner, 1981; Kuo & Tsai, 1986), host-family programs and U.S. students-Chinese students partner programs would be valuable to single Chinese students in reestablishing their social support network in their new environment. Further research should develop an inventory based on Chinese culture which might more accurately measure the variables under study.

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Table 1
Means and Standard Deviation and Univariate F for Chinese Graduate Students' Scores of WCQ by Nationality

Subscale of WCQ	Taiwan (n = 45)		PRC (n = 64)		
	M	SD	M	SD	F
Confrontive Coping	1.48	0.52	1.20	0.51	7.91 *
Distancing	1.47	0.61	1.36	0.55	0.92
Self-Controlling	1.76	0.52	1.54	0.37	6.65 *
Seeking Social Support	1.77	0.52	1.54	0.37	8.07 *
Accepting Responsibility	1.76	0.52	1.51	0.52	5.87 *
Escape-Avoidance	.08	0.37	1.02	0.40	0.81
Planful Problem Solving	1.93	0.56	1.81	0.46	1.65
Positive Reappraisal	1.57	0.56	1.39	0.48	3.23

* $p < .05$

Table 2
Means and Standard Deviation and Univariate F for Chinese Graduate Students' Scores of WCQ by Marital Status

Subscale of WCQ	Single (n = 35)		Married (n = 74)		
	M	SD	M	SD	F
Confrontive Coping	1.22	0.50	1.36	0.55	1.58
Distancing	1.32	0.65	1.44	0.54	1.11
Self-Controlling	1.62	0.42	1.64	0.47	0.70
Seeking Social Support	1.70	0.48	1.53	0.62	2.07
Accepting Responsibility	1.67	0.43	1.58	0.60	0.64
Escape-Avoidance	1.06	0.41	1.04	0.39	0.10
Planful Problem Solving	1.68	0.44	1.95	0.52	7.13 *
Positive Reappraisal	1.32	0.43	1.53	0.55	3.95 *

* $p < .05$

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"Who Am I? Chinese, American, or Both?" Coping with the identity issue and becoming a well-rounded person

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The Chinese American population in the United States is rapidly increasing as we approach the year 2000. Due to cultural differences between the Chinese American community and the mainstream society, Chinese American parents and educators encounter the dilemma of retaining and teaching their own cultural values while being open to yet struggling with the value differences of the dominant culture. In our paper, we attempt to discuss the competing values and norms, the mixed messages which are sent to Chinese American students as they attend school and as they progress into adulthood. If the awareness of these differences is not heightened, educators will be ineffective in their teaching methodology. Through providing parents and teachers with the following information, we hope to give you a sense of the internal struggle that many Chinese American students face. Additionally, we hope to provide a basis from which different approaches to teaching can be developed in the future.

Differences between Chinese culture and contemporary American culture

Culture, as defined by the authors, is a way of life which has evolved to survive and thrive in a certain environment at a certain time. Culture is not static, rather, it is dynamic and changes within different contexts. The two cultures that we will discuss today do share common ground. They are not polar opposite. However, for the purposes of this paper, the authors are noting differences in order to heighten awareness concerning the conflict and confusion which Chinese students growing up in America may face as a result of receiving different messages from two distinct cultures.

Chinese culture has its roots in Confucian classics (Hsu, 1981) and teachings. The Confucian perspective, which permeates not just China but much of Asia, upholds the family as the primary unit of existence and the individual as just a part of that collective unit. Moreover, value is placed on the continuity of the family through unbroken ancestral lines (Han, 1996). Confucian teachings have led to cultural values and norms which are prevalent and have proven to withstand time for the Chinese in their society. Many of these values have long lasting effects. For example, values such as filial piety and the preponderance of a hierarchical family structure serve as proper conduct in family life. Furthermore, within a hierarchical family structure, certain prescribed conditions exist. These include indirect and covert expression of personal wishes and disagreements and avoidance of direct expression, self assertion, and confrontation (Shon & Ja, 1982).

Contrasting Chinese familial and communal cultural values are the mainstream American values, tracing its roots to individualist ideals. Individualism refers to the belief that individual or self-interest precedes collective interest (Triandis, 1989) and this ideal serves as the foundation of American democracy, individual rights, and dignity. Rather than making no distinction between individual and collective goals, individualism emphasizes the importance of making such distinctions through the optimal development and functioning of the self, such as autonomy, separation, and individuation (Han, 1989). Additionally, within the structure of American families, there exist egalitarian relationships. Family members' roles are open and changeable, and a high premium is placed on the family's ability to renegotiate its members' roles relative to one another and to realign boundaries for purposes of individuation, differentiation, and increasingly greater equalization of relationships across the generations (Han, 1989). These familial roles and

the underlying individualistic beliefs may be foreign to children from Chinese families. Some writers believe that, while there is great variability among Asian American families, the hierarchical and patriarchal collective Asian family tradition is still a strong influence for many (Shon & Ja, 1982).

Another important distinction to be made is the amount of emotional expression which is allowed in the two cultures. This also relates to physical expression of emotions and the topic of sexuality. In Chinese culture, physical expression of emotion and talk of sexuality is constricted. Intimacy is expressed less with hugging and touching, more with continuous, nonverbal support and affection. For the Chinese, it can be seen that there is more "self control" regarding emotional expression. The full spectrum of strong personal feelings are rarely communicated physically or verbally. This self control can be taken to an extreme by some and can become "self righteousness", which translates into moral judgments where sexuality and matters of the heart are concerned. Self discipline and the suppression of individual feelings and needs precludes emotional and physical shows of emotion, labeling emotions as "youthful" or "immature".

For Americans, physical and verbal expression of emotions is more direct and much more frequent. Sexuality is seen as a part of life and sex education is oftentimes integrated into the teachings at school and at home. Public displays of affection when two people are "in love" can frequently be witnessed. Physical and verbal expressions of emotion, such as hugging, touching, or saying "I love you" is very much present within relationships between family members. Hsu (1981) notes a major differences between the focus of emotional energy for Chinese and American with his quote, "An American asks, "How does my heart feel?" A Chinese asks, "What will other people say?"

For Chinese American children, contemporary American culture provides a place for an experience which can be very different from the one they receive at home. Thus, in the case of Chinese American students, one must realize how frustrating their dilemma might be.

Chinese vs. American Parenting Style

The differences in parenting style and the treatment of children in Chinese versus American families are very important. In the U.S., millions of dollars are spent annually catering to infant needs. The increase in sales of toys in the toy industry is ever rising and will continue rising as the population grows. The publication of children's books and books on how to parent correctly show the amount of importance which is placed on youth (Hsu, 1981). American parents are so concerned with the welfare of their children, and so determined to do the right thing, that they handsomely support a huge number of child specialists. They are also very verbal about their children's rights. There is not only state and federal legislation to protect the young ones, but there are also many voluntary juvenile protective associations to look after their welfare (Hsu, 1981).

In contrast, traditionally, for the Chinese in China, children are a replaceable commodity who rank last, especially female children. Infanticide, especially during a famine, was the last resort of many of the poor who had too many daughters. To the Chinese, the most important cultural ideal is filial piety - that the support of the parents come before all other obligations and this obligation must be fulfilled without questioning (Hsu, 1981). The children, especially the son, must follow the Confucian dictum that "parents are always right" and must try to satisfy the parents wishes and look after their safety, even if it means sacrificing his/her own desires. Additionally, there has hardly been any scientific inquiry into what children think or desire. Many of the children's books or articles on how to treat children used today are translated from English to Chinese. The importance of the early years are minimized. These are some of the profound differences in the way that children from the two cultures are treated. Francis Hsu (1981) captures the essence of some of these differences and notes, "The important thing to Americans is what parents should do for the children; to Chinese, what children should do for their parents".

It seems that the goal of American parenting styles are also very different from the goal of Chinese parenting styles. As noted above, the importance of filial piety and parental satisfaction, as opposed to self satisfaction, is a major driving force for many of the Chinese, an ideal which is very different from the Americans.

Chinese versus American Education

Chinese schooling and American schooling are as different as the environment from which they developed. In old-style Chinese schools, Chinese children learn to follow the same Confucian virtues impressed on them at home. They are taught to respect authority and elders without questioning. Teachers serve as an expert source of knowledge and have all the answers. They actively teach while students passively receive, learn, and absorb. The goal of this way of education is transportation of knowledge or skills, from an authority to a young learner. This kind of learning is structured, well defined, and gives the opportunity for easy evaluation, however, there is not much room for independent thinking. Questions are not encouraged and challenging opinions may not always be validated.

In contrast, the American educational system values much of what is learned at home. That is, individual predilections are valued and sought. In school, no doubt, children are taught to cooperate and develop sportsmanship, but the emphasis is on creativity and autonomy. Progressive teaching techniques have been developed to reinforce these values, which are also learned at home. American schools foster a desire and a skill for self expression that is little known in the Chinese schools (Hsu, 1981). An assumption that the American educational system upholds is that the universe is unlimited for the child to explore. The teacher serves as a stimulant, a guide in helping students explore a wide range of possibilities and in helping them develop their own interests. The teacher does not necessarily play an expert role, he/she is also there to help facilitate discussion and to further exploration of different opinions. The classroom is an informal setting where questions and interaction are encouraged. This kind of learning can foster creativity and individual interests for some students. However, lack of guidance and direction can result in confusion and may leave some students feeling lost.

Tolerance of ambiguity and an ability to accept mistakes as a part of learning and development is a standard in American culture. This struggle with uncertainty throughout development is not part of the heritage of the need to achieve perfection and certainty in Chinese culture. Daily adjustment from the values taught at home, to the norms followed at school, and then coming home to contrasting values is something Chinese American children must to learn to adapt into their lives, without proper preparation or training.

Apparently, there are tremendous differences between the two cultures that a Chinese American student must struggle to balance. It is difficult to understand the depth of this question of adjustment and identity without first becoming aware of these differences and acknowledging them as important. The amount of awareness that a teacher has toward a specific culture, besides the mainstream culture, can either help or hinder the effectiveness of his/her teaching style and can also effect the student's attitude toward school. However, it is not only the school environment, but also the parents of the home environment which contributes to student performance. Therefore, a certain amount of education about the internal struggle that our students face, in the home and in the schools, must take place. It is only with this awareness that more effective teaching methods can be developed to help maximize Chinese American student's learning potential.

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What Are the Anxious Examinees Thinking about While Taking a Test: An Investigation Using "Thinking Aloud" Method

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Most of the effort on test anxiety research has been directed toward understanding trait test anxiety which represents a potential to experience anxiety during test situation. This study focused on state test anxiety which represents the level of anxiety that is actually present during task performance. This study was conducted to investigate what people actually think about when performing anagram tasks and how the thinking process and state test anxiety level relate to their performance. Results indicated that participants who were in a test-anxious state had more negative thinking, more self-related thinking, more negative self thinking, less task-related thinking, less solution-related thinking and poorer performance. However, they were not deficient in positive thinking.

Test Anxiety, Thinking, and Performance

Test anxiety is often found to be negatively correlated with task performance. (For a comprehensive meta-analytic review of this literature, see Hembree, 1988). There are several explanations or theories describing such phenomenon. Easterbrook (1959) suggested a cue utilization theory that as emotional arousal (test anxiety) is aroused, people fail to use the full range of task-related cues to solve the problem, which results in poor performance. Wine (1971) proposed the attentional theory that test-anxious people divide their attention between task-related activities and task-unrelated activities such as worry and self-criticism that compromises task performance. Eysenck (1979) proposed a similar explanation that the task-irrelevant information raised by test anxiety reduces effective capacity of the working memory, which in turn depresses the task performance.

Spielberger (1966) developed a state-trait model of anxiety: state anxiety is a transitory state of anxiety that occurs when the individual perceives stimuli and responds with certain emotions and behavior; trait anxiety refers to a relatively stable personality characteristic. It is presumably state anxiety which has the most direct effect on performance.

Hunsley (1987) demonstrated that test anxiety is positively related to the frequency of negative internal dialogue during academic examination. Mueller and Thompson (1984) reported that the test-anxious person has "an apparent negative bias in the self concept" (p. 33). Sharma and Sud (1989) found that highly test-anxious students reported less positive feelings about their abilities and task than low test-anxious students, supporting the cognitive-attentional theory of test anxiety. Blankstein, Flett, Boase, and Toner (1991) showed that test-anxious persons have more negative expectancies for their performance which is related to more negative self thoughts and fewer positive task-related thoughts. In addition, Arnkoff and Smith (1988) found that negative thoughts were strongly related to performance.

Apparently, then, people who are in a highly test-anxious state cannot concentrate their attention on the task at hand and so they cannot make use of all of the working memory capacity on the task. This raises the question of what specific content other than task solution-related information occupies the mind of people who are in highly test-anxious state during test situation. What is the "task solution-irrelevant" information?

Purpose of Study

This study was conducted to investigate the following questions: (1) the relationship between state test anxiety and cognitive content; (2) the relationships of task difficulty with state test anxiety and with valence of thinking; (3) the relationship between state test anxiety and task performance with regard to correct response and time consumed; and (4) the relationships of task performance with task-related thinking and with solution-related thinking.

Methods

Participants

Twenty undergraduate students who were all native English speakers participated in this study. Five males and five females with low self-reported test anxiety, and five males and five females with high self-reported test anxiety were chosen as participants. The range of total scores in Test Anxiety Inventory (TAI) for low test anxiety participants was from 23 to 37 ($\underline{M}$ = 29.40, $\underline{SD}$ = 3.66), and for high test anxiety participants was from 39 to 65 ($\underline{M}$ = 50.50, $\underline{SD}$ = 9.40).

Instruments

Test anxiety inventory (TAI). The 20-item Test Anxiety Inventory (Spielberger, 1980) was used to evaluate the levels of trait test anxiety of participants. The TAI yields three scores: total score, worry score, and emotionality score.

State test anxiety continuum (STAC). The STAC, developed specifically for this study, is a self-report instrument for measuring state test anxiety. Respondents indicated their level of anxiety by placing a mark on a 100 mm line labeled "The least anxious I have ever felt during a test" at one end and "The most anxious I have ever felt during a test" at the other. Scores were assigned by measuring the distance from the low end of the scale to the respondent's mark to the nearest mm. Thus, for each item, the score ranged from 0 to 100.

Anagram. Anagrams were selected from Kaplan and Carvellas (1968) and contained three, five, seven, and nine letters. Two anagrams of each length were selected. For the first four anagrams, time was unlimited while for the last four, time was limited to 75% of the time the participant had used on the earlier anagram of the same length.

Cognitive Content Categories. The participants' utterances while they were performing the tasks were coded into thirteen mutually exclusive categories formed from two dimensions: valence (positive, negative, and neutral) and reference (self, task, unrelated, and unidentified) (modified from Blankstein, Toner, & Feltt, 1989). The summarized categories are shown in Figure 1.

Procedure

The study was conducted in a quiet room. Each participant was instructed to say whatever was in his or her mind throughout the time she spent working on tasks. First, the participant solved three different tasks (multiplication, blank filling, and simple algebra) as a warm-up exercise to become familiar with the task situation and to practice thinking aloud. After that, eight anagram tasks were presented to the participant.

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Coding

The taped verbalization was transcribed and segmented into smallest codeable units. The experimenter and another rater who were blind to the respondents' anxiety scores assigned each segment to one of the thirteen cognitive categories (Figure 1). This coding system is based on that used by Blankstein, Toner, & Flett (1989) with two modifications. First, three categories for comments with no identifiable referent were added (the row marked "unidentified"). Second, the category for comments referring to the task and with a neutral valence was divided into two categories: solution-related thinking and solution-unrelated thinking. The inter-coder agreement was found to be 84.57%.

Results

Intercorrelation among Measure

The correlation between the sum of responses to the STAC before the task and the sum of responses to the STAC during each task ($r = .88$, $p < .001$) indicated substantial consistency in respondents' reports of their state anxiety.

The concurrent validity of STAC was assessed by computing Pearson correlations between STAC scores and TAI scores shown in Table 1. All the correlations were reasonably large. The range of these correlation coefficient was from .47 to .94 and all were statistically significant.

Research Question 1: Relations between State Test Anxiety and Cognitive Contents

Research question 1 were addressed in two different ways. The first way emphasizes people as the unit of analysis. In this approach, the answer to the research question relates individuals' anxiety levels to their cognitive contents. The second approach emphasizes tasks as the unit of analysis. In this approach, the answer to the research question relates the extent to which the average participant experiences anxiety during a task to the extent to which the average participant engages in a particular type of thinking during that task.

These two approaches require two different sets of calculations. With people as the unit of analysis, the correlations between participant's ratings of the anxiety they experienced during the task and other variables were computed for each of the eight separate anagrams (Table 2). With tasks as the unit of analysis, the calculation included two steps: the means and standard deviations of each variable in each anagram were computed first (Table 3), then the intercorrelations among these means of variables were calculated (Table 4).

In general, the pattern of correlations was consistent in both with people and tasks as the unit of analysis: during task situations, the participants who were in highly test-anxious state had more negative thinking (median $r = .37$) and less neutral thinking (median $r = -.30$) while the tasks during which people felt anxious were also the tasks during which respondents had more negative thinking ($r = .96$, $p < .001$), and less neutral thinking ($r = -.89$, $p < .01$). The anxious participants had less task-related thinking (median $r = -.25$) and less solution-related thinking, (median $r = -.27$) while the task during which participants felt anxious were generally the same tasks during which respondents had less task-related thinking ($r = -.85$, $p < .01$) and less solution-related thinking ($r = -.92$, $p < .01$). The anxious participants had more negative thinking about themselves (median $r = .24$) while the tasks during which participants were anxious were also the tasks during which respondents had more negative thinking about themselves ($r = .79$, $p < .05$).

In contrast to the general convergence of the two approaches, the relationship between state test anxiety experienced during the task and participant's negative thinking

during the task was high, and significant with the task as the unit of analysis (r = .88, p < .01) while it was low, and not significant with people as the unit of analysis (median r = .18). This finding may represent a case in which the influence on the situation outweighs the influence of respondents' individual differences. People who were anxious were not necessarily the same people who expressed negative thoughts about the task, but tasks that were viewed negatively were also associated with high levels of anxiety.

Research Question 2: Relations of Task Difficulty with State Test Anxiety and with Valence of Thinking

Research Question 2 was analyzed with tasks as the unit of analysis. Task difficulty was defined as the number participants who failed to solve the anagram correctly. The correlations between task difficulty and the relevant variables are shown in Table 5.

Significant relationships were found between task difficulty and anxiety during the task (r = .84, p < .01), and between task difficulty and participants' negative thinking during the task (r = .89, p < .01). A marginally significant correlation was found between task difficulty and participants' positive thinking during the task (r = -.64, p < .09). Moreover, large significant correlations among anxiety during the task, negative thinking during the task, and participants' neutral thinking during the task were found (r = .96, p < .001; r = -.89, p < .01; r = -.87, p < .01, respectively). This pattern indicates that there were high intercorrelations among task difficulty, state test anxiety, and negative thinking. One of the possible explanations might be that difficult tasks raised state test anxiety, which in turn caused negative thinking.

Research Question 3: Relations between State Anxiety and Task Performance

Three kinds of responses to the tasks were possible: correct response, incorrect response, and no response. The frequencies of each of these kinds of response for each of eight anagrams are presented in Table 6. For each participant, the mean anxiety reported for anagrams for which he or she had given a correct response, for anagrams for which he or she had given an incorrect response, and for each anagram for which he or she had given no response were computed. The means (across participants) for these three personal means are presented in Table 7.

The mean anxiety reported while generating a correct solution was the lowest (M = 33.98, SD = 18.98), whereas the mean for anagrams that were not solved was the highest (M = 66.04, SD = 21.44). These results indicated that the correct responses were associated with lower state test anxiety and incorrect responses and failures to solve were associated with higher state test anxiety.

The average time used (in seconds) to generate a correct solution or an incorrect solution or to abandon an anagram (computed analogously to state test anxiety) are shown in Table 7. The mean was lowest for correct solutions (M = 43.86, SD = 28.56); and highest for incorrect solutions (M = 199.40, SD = 176.49.

From the above pattern, it appears that participants reported lower state test anxiety and used less time when responding correctly than when responding incorrectly or failing to respond. In other words, low state test anxiety was associated with good performance.

Research Question 4: Relations of Performance with Task-Related Thinking and with Solution-Related Thinking

The average scores of participants' task-related thinking while performing the task during which participants' correct or incorrect responses or abandoned an anagram are shown in Table 8. The mean of task-related thinking was highest for correct solutions (M = .90, SD = .10), the mean for incorrect solutions was in intermediate (M = .83, SD = .18), and the mean for abandoned anagrams was the lowest (M = .82, SD = .22).

The average scores for solution-related thinking during which participants' response were correct or incorrect or the anagram was abandoned are also in Table 8. The pattern was similar to that found for task-related thinking: the mean of solution-related thinking for correct responses was the highest (M = .79, SD = .15), the mean for incorrect responses was intermediate (M = .71, SD = .30), and the mean for abandoned anagrams was the lowest (M = .63, SD = .24). However, the values of solution-related thinking among these three kinds of responses were more spread out. These results suggest that correct responses were associated with solution-relevant thinking to greater extent than were other responses.

Discussion

Most of the findings about state test anxiety in this study were consistent with the findings concerning trait test anxious people in other studies. Results indicated that the level of state test anxiety was based on trait test anxiety and triggered by the task condition/situation.

Participants who were in a test-anxious state had more negative thinking, more negative self thinking, less neutral thinking, less task-related thinking, less solution-related thinking, and lower performance in this study. Although the data in this study do not definitively establish the causal relations among variables, it seems reasonable to speculate that when people are feeling anxious, they think negatively about themselves and do not think about solving the task. Because of this, they do poorly.

Most of the previous studies about test anxiety are trait oriented. One of the reasons for rare state test anxiety research is that it might be hard to measure the state of test anxiety rapidly and repeatedly during an experiment. The STAC developed for this study seems to provide very efficient and valid measure of state anxiety.

Task-related thinking is usually used in studies as the indicator and explanation for task performance. There are a number of ways in which people can think about a task, though. These results suggest that it might be helpful to distinguish between task-related thinking in general and solution-related thinking in particular. Solution-related thinking shows promise of distinguishing not only between correct and incorrect responses, but also between incorrect response and abandonment (means = .79, .71, .63 respectively).

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Table 1
Intercorrelation among Test Anxiety Measurements

	TAI Total	Worry	Emotionality	STAC Before
TAI Total	—			
Worry	.92***	—		
Emotionality	.94***	.74***	—	
STAC Before	.62**	.54**	.55**	—
STAC During	.57**	.47*	.51**	.88***

Note. *p < .05. **p < .01. ***p < .001.

Table 2
Correlation between State Test Anxiety and Categories of Cognitive Content

	Anagram								
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Median
Positive thinking	.31	.30	-.35	-.24	.47*	.10	.08	-.01	.09
Negative thinking	-.22	.42*	.42*	.37	a	.42*	.27	.32	.37
Neutral thinking	-.12	-.47*	-.20	-.32	-.47*	-.42*	-.28	-.21	-.30
Task-related thinking	a	-.15	-.45*	-.22	-.45*	-.14	-.25	-.46*	-.25
Task-unrelated thinking	a	.13	.44*	.21	.23	-.10	.16	.26	.21
Positive task thinking	.31	.05	-.37	.08	.31	.10	.03	-.10	.07
Negative task thinking	-.22	.44	.18	a	a	.13	.19	.18	.18
Solution-related thinking	-.12	-.21	-.36	-.27	-.47*	-.21	-.32	-.27	-.27
Self-related thinking	a	.13	.39*	.11	.23	-.10	.14	.26	.14
Positive self thinking	a	.43	.21	-.24	.23	a	.17	-.01	.19
Negative self thinking	a	.27	.40*	.39*	a	.18	.11	.20	.24

Note. n = 20 participants.
*$p < .05$; [a]no variability in one of the variables, $r = 0$

Table 3
Means and Standard Deviations of Variables in Eight Anagrams of State Test Anxiety and Categories of Cognitive Content

	Anagram							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
State test anxiety	17.700	25.800	61.950	72.650	28.750	53.200	55.150	54.700
	(14.779)	(28.430)	(26.243)	(25.824)	(25.657)	(23.940)	(25.997)	(26.352)
Positive thinking	.017	.107	.083	.022	.123	.003	.022	.131
	(.075)	(.187)	(.128)	(.037)	(.271)	(.014)	(.067)	(.257)
Negative thinking	.012	.049	.249	.268	.000	.187	.244	.165
	(.056)	(.121)	(.193)	(.151)	(.000)	(.229)	(.210)	(.192)
Neutral thinking	.971	.845	.624	.710	.877	.809	.734	.704
	(.091)	(.225)	(.186)	(.147)	(.271)	(.231)	(.218)	(.273)
Task-related thinking	1.000	.875	.793	.722	.921	.879	.885	.868
	(.000)	(.209)	(.204)	(.229)	(.187)	(.256)	(.156)	(.152)
Task-unrelated thinking	.000	.123	.166	.212	.053	.073	.065	.077
	(.000)	(.208)	(.153)	(.190)	(.158)	(.232)	(.103)	(.115)
Positive task thinking	.017	.082	.076	.006	.044	.003	.017	.088
	(.075)	(.164)	(.130)	(.020)	(.134)	(.014)	(.058)	(.231)
Negative task thinking	.012	.013	.177	.132	.000	.120	.176	.100
	(.056)	(.058)	(.167)	(.112)	(.000)	(.187)	(.194)	(.149)
Solution-related thinking	.971	.780	.515	.539	.877	.756	.688	.658
	(.091)	(.311)	(.210)	(.220)	(.271)	(.289)	(.258)	(.276)
Solution-unrelated thinking	.029	.22	.485	.461	.123	.244	.312	.342
	(.091)	(.311)	(.210)	(.220)	(.271)	(.289)	(.258)	(.276)
Self-related thinking	.000	.123	.157	.185	.053	.070	.060	.069
	(.000)	(.208)	(.149)	(.186)	(.158)	(.231)	(.091)	(.111)
Positive self thinking	.000	.025	.007	.014	.053	.000	.005	.020
	(.000)	(.112)	(.018)	(.034)	(.158)	(.000)	(.020)	(.062)
Negative self thinking	.000	.036	.104	.105	.000	.020	.041	.033
	(.000)	(.093)	(.103)	(.107)	(.000)	(.075)	(.072)	(.077)

Note. Standard deviations are shown in parentheses.

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Table 4
Intercorrelation among State Test Anxiety and Cognitive Content Categories

		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)
(1)	State test anxiety											
(2)	Positive thinking	-.22										
(3)	Negative thinking	.96***	-.37									
(4)	Neutral thinking	-.89**	-.13	-.87**								
(5)	Task-related thinking	-.85**	.02	-.77*	.81*							
(6)	Task-unrelated thinking	.70	.04	.64	-.71*	-.97***						
(7)	Positive task thinking	-.13	.88**	-.18	-.29	-.05	.14					
(8)	Negative task thinking	.88**	-.36	.97***	-.85**	-.62	.48	-.15				
(9)	Solution-related thinking	-.92**	-.02	-.89**	.97***	.92**	-.85**	-.19	-.82*			
(10)	Self-related thinking	.66	.08	.61	-.70	-.95***	1.00***	.19	.46	-.84**		
(11)	Positive self thinking	-.31	.75*	-.51	.17	.05	-.00	.38	-.55	.21	.02	
(12)	Negative self thinking	.79*	-.09	.79*	-.82*	-.92**	.92**	.10	.69	-.92**	.91**	-.25

Note. n = 8 anagrams.
*p < .05. **p < .01. ***p < .001.

C8

C7

Table 5
Intercorrelation among Task Difficulty, State Test Anxiety, Positive thinking, Negative thinking, and Neutral Thinking

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
(1) Task Difficulty	—			
(2) State test anxiety	.84**	—		
(3) Positive thinking	-.64	-.22	—	
(4) Negative thinking	.89**	.96***	-.37	—
(5) Neutral thinking	-.60	-.89**	-.13	-.87**

Note. **p < .01. ***p < .001.

Table 6
Frequency of Different Responses in Each Anagram

Response	Anagram							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Correct	20	20	9	4	20	3	6	16
Incorrect	0	0	2	3	0	3	3	2
Give up/None	0	0	9	13	0	14	11	2

Table 7
Means, Medians, Standard Deviations, and Ranges of State Test Anxiety and Time Use of Different Responses

Response	State test anxiety				Time use			
	Mean	Mdn	SD	Range	Mean	Mdn	SD	Range
Correct	33.98	34.00	18.98	6.57-72.00	43.86	42.20	28.56	6.33-87.33
Incorrect	62.24	71.40	24.13	35.80-85.00	199.40	203.80	176.49	9.00-473.00
Give up/None	66.04	71.42	21.44	7.00-90.67	164.94	156.83	114.86	3.00-481.00

Note. Time use is in seconds.

Table 8
Means, Medians, Standard Deviations, and Ranges of Task-Related Thinking and Solution-Related Thinking Associated With Different Responses

Response	Task-related thinking				Solution-related thinking			
	Mean	Mdn	SD	Range	Mean	Mdn	SD	Range
Correct	.90	.93	.10	.70-1.00	.79	.78	.15	.49-1.00
Incorrect	.83	.89	.18	.61-1.00	.71	.79	.30	.26-1.00
Give up/None	.82	.90	.22	.07-1.00	.63	.64	.24	.05-1.00

Figure 1. Hypothetical Examples of Comments Coded in Each of the Thirteen Categories of Cognitive Content

	Positive	Negative	Neutral
Self	I am smart.	I am a foolish jerk.	I am trying to concentrate myself.
Task	This task is a piece of cake.	This problem is hard.	The letters are OBKO, so the consonants are... (*solution-related thinking*)
			Must this problem be done? (*solution-unrelated thinking*)
Irrelevant	It is a beautiful day.	The TV show yesterday was terrible.	It's really raining out there.
Unidentified	Great!	Oh, boy!	Thank you.

General Perceptions of School and Home Among Chinese-American Youth and Their Parents

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Asian Americans represent one of the fastest growing minority groups (U.S. Bureau of Census, 1995). Research regarding this population is relatively sparse when compared to other racial/ethnic groups. Generally, studies tend to focus on Asian-American school-aged children, rather than Asian-American parents. Most studies emphasized the high academic achievement of this group (Alva, 1993; Kim, 1994; Lee, 1994; Ritter & Dornbosch, 1989; Sue & Ozaki, 1990). Additionally, members in the Asian-American population are frequently identified as a unified group, despite the great variation among Asian ethnic groups in culture, language, and experience. In his chapter in a textbook, Lian (1996) confirmed the extensively diverse situations in the Asian-American community.

Chen and Yang (1986) reported that Asian-American youth may struggle with a number of issues such as racism and conflicts with traditional cultural values. In particular, they noted that Chinese-American adolescents had a well-developed sense of duty, responsibility and concern for others, but they feel much more awkward than their Caucasian counterparts about their bodies and the physical changes they undergo during adolescence. Chen (1989) expressed his concern of lower self-concept among Chinese-American students. Besides, the question, "Why should I go to the weekend Chinese school?" has been a challenging one for parents to respond to (*The World Journal*, 1997).

In a recent study, teachers overwhelmingly agreed that Asian-American students tended to concentrate more on their academic studies than their non-Asian peers (Poon-McBrayer, 1996). However, Feldman and Rosenthal (1990) noted that Asian-American youth may often be torn by pressures associated with demands to conform to diametrical values: the Western notion of individualism and the traditional Asian value of collectivism. According to Rick and Forward (1992), Asian youth perceived themselves to be less connected to parental value systems as they become more acclimated to American norms. This phenomenon is logically more apparent between the first-generation immigrant parents and the US-born, second generation youth. Cultural conflicts and linguistic differences between these parents and youth are more frequently found and severe than if the parents themselves were also US-born. Other variables that may affect the severity of conflicts and differences between Asian parents and youth may include the education of parents, where they received their education, parents' length of stay in the US, and level of acculturation.

Among the Asian-American population, according to Chinn and Wong (1992), the six largest groups include Chinese (22.6%), Filipino (19.3%), Japanese (11.7%), Asian Indian (11.2%), Korean (11%), and Vietnamese (8.4%). The present study focused on Chinese-American youth and their parents. The collected data were part of a series of studies conducted across several states. Chinese-American students, as it is true of other Asian ethnic groups, have been traditionally viewed as high achievers in public schools. The effect of important issues such as identity, degree of acculturation, parent-child relationship, and the impact of cultural differences between the parents and the children may have been neglected and need to be examined.

Method

This study was designed to examine issues in school and at home such as identity, degrees of acculturation, and parent-child relationship. Major themes which were investigated among the youth included: (a) their academic and social acceptance by teachers and other children, (b) perception of their school performance, (c) language and cultural issues, (d) peers' consumption of tobacco, alcohol, and drugs, (d) parental interaction and expectation, and (e) family tie. For the parents, issues examined included: (a) their understanding of the American school system, (b) perception of their children's school performance and acceptance of other children and teachers, (c) parenting time, resources, and approaches, (d) language and cultural issues, (e) their children's consumption of tobacco, alcohol, and drugs, and (f) parental expectations. Two survey forms were developed and validated by multicultural and counseling specialists, one for the Chinese-American youth and one for their parents. Thirty-nine young Chinese Americans from New York/New Jersey (NY/NJ) and 17 from Central Illinois (CI), as well as 24 parents from NY/NJ and 21 from CI, participated in this study. All participants in NY/NJ were recruited through religious organizations, while those in CI through weekend Chinese schools.

Results

Demographics of Participants

Because of the snowball sampling method, the demographics of the participants at three locations had a tendency to be similar in many aspects: (a) 84.6% of NY/NJ and 70.6% of CI youth participants were US-born, (b) the mean age of the NY/NJ youth was 14.77 years and the CI youth, 11.47 years, (c) approximately two thirds of both youth groups had already had set vocational goals, (d) higher percentage of the NY/NJ youth (66.7%) tended to have many Chinese peers residing in their school district, as compared to the CI youth group (23.5%), (e) both the youth and the parent participants were mainly Christians, (f) over 90% of the fathers were professionals in various types of engineering and science or medicine, (g) 92.6% of NY/NJ and 76.2% of CI participants had family annual income exceeded $50,000 and no one had income below $30,000, (h) slightly less than three quarters of the NY/NJ families (73%) and almost half of the CI families (47.1%) surveyed had two working parents, (i) all of the youth lived with their biological parents, (j) participants' countries of origin included Taiwan, Hong Kong, China, Malaysia, and Vietnam, and (k) over 50% of the families had dinner together every night.

Perceptions of Home and School General

Participants' responses regarding general perceptions of home and school are presented in two tables. Data from New Jersey and New York were combined as one location because of the small number of participants from New York and the extreme similarity in data pattern between the two sites. The first table presents data obtained from 56 youth participants with 39 residing in New Jersey/New York, and 17 in Central Illinois. The responses of the youth participants to items of relevant themes are shown in Table 1.

Table 2 presents data from 49 parent participants with 28 residing in New Jersey/New York, and 21 in Central Illinois. The responses of Chinese-American parent participants to items of relevant themes are shown in Table 2.

Five open-ended questions were included in the parent survey:

1. What things does your child(ren) do that make you proud?
2. What things does your child(ren) do that may shame you?
3. What is your most difficult task related to bringing up your child(ren) in America?
4. What type of help would you like to have relative to bringing up your child(ren)?
5. What would you like to learn more about relative to your child(ren)'s education?

Data indicated that parents were most proud of their children for good school performance, appropriate behavior, and obedience toward parents. Parents would feel most ashamed if

their children had behaviors such as self-centeredness and disobedience. They found it most difficult to teach Chinese value/culture/language while their children were confronted with American values different from theirs. The type of help parents would most desire was raising their children with Chinese norms, values, and culture. Lastly, the most important thing parents would like to learn more about their children's education was how the school system and educational programs worked and how and whether morality was taught in school.

Discussion

The results of this study suggested that youth participants surveyed tended to be well-adjusted, confident, and tended to have a positive relationship with their parents, friends, and teachers. The fact that the majority of the NY/NJ youth (84.6%) and the CI youth (87.5%) agreed that their family loved them as they were is delivering a positive message. The youth enjoyed schooling for the most part though school being too easy was cited as the major reason for disliking school among the youth participants. Nevertheless, over half of the youth participants still expressed the wish that their parents would trust, understand, listen to them more, and would not compare them to other children. Such feelings may be typical youth complaints while parents should not ignore them.

The majority of parent participants were first-generation immigrants, but felt that they understood enough about American schools and the educational system. Parents expressed that they were proud of and trusted their children. Generally, they were confident that their children did not smoke cigarettes, drink alcohol, and use drugs. Parents' responses to the open-ended questions suggested that the first-generation immigrant parents, despite their religious background, similarly regarded their traditional Chinese culture highly and perceived themselves as responsible for passing along to their children. Therefore, it is easily understood that they had concerns for a lack of morale education in public schools and how to instill their moral values to their children without the reinforcement from school. This situation also suggests that the parent participants may worry about the current American public school system regarding students' academic performance and the absence of morale education. Parental concern for low academic standard was shared by a number of the youth participants who did not want to attend school because school was too easy for them. Parents overwhelmingly insisted the need for a parent support group in order to share concerns and provide advice and positive role models for their children from the Chinese-American or the church community.

Comparison of Results Between the Participants in NY/NJ and CI

A contradictory finding in a number of aspects of the demographics and perceptions of home and school was noted between the NY/NJ and CI participants. More youth participants in NY/NJ than the CI youth attended schools with many other Chinese-American students. As for parents, other than one family having been in the US for less than 5 years, the NY/NJ parent participants have been in the US for at least 11 years, while almost 30% of the CI participants had been in the US for 10 years or less. More families in NY/NJ had a higher average family income, as compared to those in CI, which could be partially explained by the geographical zone being closer to the metropolitan areas and the fact that 73% of the mothers in NY/NJ worked and 47.1% in CI.

Difference in responses between the NY/NJ and CI youth groups was noted in six items concerning perceptions of home and school. Data indicated that higher percentage of the CI youth (94.1%) than the NY/NJ participants (74.4%) felt a sense of belonging in their schools. Meanwhile, twice as many of the youth in NY/NJ (35.9%), as compared to the CI group (17.6%), indicated that they did not want to go to school. The NY/NJ youth participants explained that it was because the school was too easy for them, while feeling tired and the upcoming project due tended to be the reasons for the CI youth participants who did not want to go to school. Higher percentage among the youth participants in NY/NJ

reported that they knew some children who smoked cigarettes, drank alcohol, and used drug. More youth in CI (94.1%) than those in NY/NJ (53.8%) indicated that they were happy with their school work, while the NY/NJ group (28.2%) seemed to be less worried about going to college, as compared to the CI youth (41.2%). This finding is positively corresponding with the parents' responses--85.7% of the parents in NY/NJ and 76.7% of the parents in CI did not worry about their children being able to go to college. Yet more of the CI parents (64.7%) than the parents in NY/NJ (43.6%) were perceived to praise the youth often for doing well in school. Further study and data analysis are needed for exploring the reasons for differences between the research sites in the above areas.

As for parent survey, a few items were found to have an obvious difference between the NY/NJ and CI participants. While more youth in CI (94.1%) than in NY/NJ (89.7%) expressed that they had many friends at school, fewer CI parents (76.2%) than NY/NJ parents (92.9%) believed that their children had many friends. More CI youth (86.7%) than NY/NJ youth (56.4%) wanted to know more about Chinese culture and language, while fewer CI parents (47.6%) than NY/NJ parents (71.4%) felt that their children knew Chinese culture and language. It appeared that the CI youth participants were more concerned that they did not know enough about Chinese culture and language. Another interesting difference between the samples was that 90.5% of CI parents trusted their children's school, while only 42.9% of NY/NJ parents did the same.

Conclusion and Recommendations

The results of this study reflected general perceptions of home and school among middle to upper-class, professional, and largely Christian Chinese-American families across two major geographical sites. Their perceptions are, therefore, only generalizable to those with similar backgrounds.

Data collected in the present study support the existing concern in the related literature that there is a need for more meaningful communication between Chinese-American parents and youth (e.g., Lian, 1995; *The World Journal*, 1997). The fact that more than half of the youth participants expressed a wish for parents to listen to them and trust them more while over 90% of parents expressed that they trusted their children may confirm the need for better communication.

Reasons for the noted differences in perceptions of home and school between the NY/NJ and the CI participants are yet to be explored. Further investigations using qualitative methods, such as interviewing participants, may help to explain the differences. The results of the present study might strengthen the idea that a great number of Asian-American students are doing well in school as well as at home with few problems. It must be kept in mind, however, that the participants in the study are middle to upper-class Chinese Americans. Their perceptions may not be generalized to new or old immigrants of other socioeconomic classes. As Lian (1996) indicated,

> Since the 1960s, a new stereotypic image of Asian Americans has developed. Asian Americans are now often classified as diligent, hard-working, and high educational and economic achievers. Such overgeneralizations cause the public to overlook hidden issues and concerns among this population including poverty, limited health care, family violence, child abuse and neglect, and increased school failure and dropping out of Asian-American children. (p. 240)

Comparison of data gathered in the present study with a drastically different sample such as lower income families with non-professional parents will be useful to education, social services, and mental health professionals in avoiding the stereotypes about Chinese Americans, pinpointing the needs of Chinese Americans in the US, and providing them with appropriate services they are entitled.

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Table 1 Percentage of Young Chinese Americans' Responses (N=56)

	NY/NJ (n=39)			Central Ill. (n=17)		
	Yes	No	UnS	Yes	No	UnS
1. I have many friends at school.	89.7	5.1	5.1	94.1	0	5.9
2. Most of other children at school like me.	76.9	10.3	12.8	82.4	0	17.6
3. Most of my school teacher(s) like me.	82.1	2.6	15.4	100	0	0
4. I am happy at school most of the time.	74.4	10.3	15.3	100	0	0
5. I am happy with my school work	53.8	25.6	20.5	94.1	0	5.9
6. I feel like I belong in most of my school classes.	74.4	7.7	17.9	94.1	5.9	0
7. I often do not want to go to school.	35.9	56.4	7.7	17.6	76.5	5.9
8. I have difficulty learning many things at school.	0	97.4	2.6	0	94.1	5.9
9. I am often afraid to go to school.	5.4	89.8	2.6	11.8	76.1	11.8
10. I know some children in my school who smoke cigarettes.	76.9	15.4	7.7	47.1	47.1	5.9
11. I know some children in my school who drink alcohol.	64.1	23.1	12.8	35.3	58.8	5.9
12. I know some children in my school who take drugs.	61.5	23.1	15.4	29.4	64.7	5.9
13. I worry a lot about going to College.	28.2	61.5	10.3	41.2	35.3	23.5
14. English is too difficult to me.	2.6	97.4	0	0	94.1	5.9
15. My parent(s) often help me with my school work.	20.5	64.1	15.4	35.3	58.8	5.9
16. My parent(s) are usually too busy to spend time with me.	23.1	69.2	7.7	29.4	52.9	17.6
17. My parent(s) praise me often for doing well in school.	43.6	38.5	17.9	64.7	23.5	11.8
18. My parent(s) love me a lot.	92.3	0	7.7	94.1	0	5.9
19. I am very proud of my family.	87.2	0	12.8	94.1	0	5.9
20. I wish my parent(s) would stop criticizing me.	48.7	38.5	12.8	58.8	35.3	5.9

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21. I wish my parent(s) would understand how I feel.	66.7	15.4	17.9	64.7	11.8	23.5
22. I wish my parent(s) would trust me.	74.4	20.5	5.1	75.0	18.8	6.3
23. I wish my parent(s) would not speak Chinese (or other Asian language) to me in front of others.	17.9	66.7	15.4	31.3	43.8	25.0
24. I wish my parent(s) were not so Chinese.	30.8	64.1	5.1	18.8	81.3	0
25. I wish my parent(s) would not compare me to my sister or brother.	48.7	41.0	10.3	53.3	33.3	13.3
26. I wish my parent(s) would not compare me to other children.	61.5	25.6	12.8	75.0	25.0	0
27. I wish my parent(s) would pay more attention to me.	25.6	59.0	15.4	43.8	43.8	12.5
28. I wish my parent(s) would listen to me.	56.4	28.2	15.4	68.8	31.3	0
29. I wish my parent(s) would stop forcing me to do things that I do not want to do.	48.7	38.5	12.8	50.0	50.0	0
30. I wish my parent(s) were not so strict (with reasonable rules, curfew, etc.).	64.1	20.5	15.4	46.7	40.0	13.3
31. I wish my parent(s) could speak English well.	51.3	43.6	5.1	68.8	25.0	6.3
32. I love my parent(s) very much.	97.4	2.6	0	93.8	0	6.3
33. My family loves me just as I am.	84.6	5.1	10.3	87.5	0	12.5
34. I am very happy living in the U.S.	92.3	7.7	0	100	0	0
35. I am generally healthy and happy.	94.9	0	5.1	100	0	0
36. I would like to know more about China and its culture.	56.4	20.5	23.1	86.7	6.7	6.7
37. Knowing Chinese Language is very important to me.	64.1	20.5	15.4	81.3	0	18.8
38. I wish I had at least one true friend.	43.6	41.0	15.4	62.5	31.3	6.3
39. I wish I were not Chinese.	7.7	79.5	12.8	6.3	87.5	6.3
40. My parent(s) are very proud of me.	84.6	2.6	12.8	87.5	12.5	0
41. I am well-accepted by my Chinese-American peers.	87.2	0	12.8	93.8	0	6.3

Note: NY/NJ=New York/New Jersey; Ill.=Illinois; UnS=Unsure.

Table 2 Percentage of Chinese-American Parents' Responses (N=56)

	NY/NJ (n=28)			Central Ill. (n=21)		
	Yes	No	UnS	Yes	No	UnS
1. I understand enough about American schools and the educational system.	71.4	25.0	3.6	81.0	4.8	14.3
2. I am too busy to help my child(ren) with his/her school work.	7.1	78.6	14.3	23.8	71.4	4.8
3. In general, my child(ren) does not respect me as parent.	7.1	92.9	0	9.5	85.7	4.8
4. In general, my child(ren) is doing well in school.	96.4	3.6	0	100	0	0
5. I am too poor to pay for my child(ren)'s education.	3.6	92.9	3.6	0	100	0
6. I am too busy to spend time with my child(ren).	21.4	67.9	10.7	14.3	85.7	0
7. I am very proud of my child(ren).	96.4	3.6	0	95.2	0	4.8
8. My child(ren) has many friends.	92.9	7.1	0	76.2	19.0	4.8
9. My child(ren) likes to talk with us.	71.4	10.7	17.9	85.7	4.8	9.5
10. My child(ren) speaks English well.	100	0	0	100	0	0
11. My child(ren) speaks Chinese well.	50.0	32.1	17.9	66.7	23.8	9.5
12. My child(ren) does not like to speak Chinese in front of his/her schoolmates.	42.9	50.0	7.1	52.4	38.1	9.5
13. I understand how my child(ren) feels.	71.4	3.6	25.0	81.0	9.5	9.5
14. My child(ren) makes friends with the wrong group of kids.	3.6	92.9	3.6	0	95.2	4.8
15. My child(ren) comes home too late at night.	7.1	89.3	3.6	4.8	95.2	0
16. My child(ren) seems to be unhappy.	3.6	89.3	7.1	4.8	85.7	9.5
17. I suspect that my child(ren) smokes cigarettes.	0	100	0	0	100	0
18. I know that my child(ren) smokes cigarettes.	0	100	0	0	100	0
19. I suspect that my child(ren) drinks alcohol.	0	100	0	0	100	0.
20. I know that my child(ren) drinks alcohol.	0	100	0	0	100	0
21. I suspect that my child(ren) uses drugs.	0	100	0	0	100	0
22. I know that my child(ren) uses drugs.	0	100	0	0	100	0
23. My child(ren) wears wild make-up, hairdo, and						

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clothing.	0	100	0	0	100	0
24. It is important for my child(ren) to know Chinese language	87.5	7.1	7.1	95.2	0	4.8
25. It is important for my child(ren) to know Chinese culture, heritage, and values.	89.3	3.6	7.1	76.2	0	23.8
26. My child(ren) knows Chinese culture, heritage, and values well.	71.4	21.4	7.1	47.6	28.6	23.8
27. My child(ren) is misfits in school or at work.	3.6	92.9	3.6	4.8	85.7	9.5
28. My child(ren) demonstrates autonomy.	46.4	21.4	32.1	61.9	23.8	14.3
29. I worry that my child(ren) cannot go to a good college.	7.1	85.7	7.1	23.8	76.2	0
30. My child(ren) behaves badly.	10.7	82.1	7.1	4.8	95.2	0
31. I know my child(ren) will get good jobs in the future.	64.3	3.6	32.1	66.7	0	33.3
32. I am glad my child(ren) will grow up in the United States.	85.7	7.1	7.1	90.5	0	9.5
33. I trust my child(ren).	92.9	7.1	0	90.5	0	9.5
34. I trust my child(ren)'s school.	42.9	32.1	25.0	90.5	0	9.5

Note: NY/NJ=New York/New Jersey; Ill.=Illinois; UnS=Unsure.

Parental Involvement: A New Challenge to Asian-American Parents

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Recent studies have explored the importance and value of parental involvement in the schooling process (e.g., Greenberg, 1989; Torres-Guzman, 1991, Rasinsk & Fredericks, 1989). The literature on parental involvement in child and adolescent education in American schools convey the clear assumption that parents' involvement benefits children's learning (e.g., Chavkin, 1993, Eccles & Harold, 1993; U.S. Department of Education, 1994). However, in the midst of all the studies, literature also reveals lack of interest and participation of Asian-American parents in their children's schooling (e.g., Zhang, 1996; Constantino et al, 1995; Morrow, 1989; Chao, 1995). Many of them have offered suggestions for both American schools and Asian-American parents for promoting partnership between school and parents. The purpose of this paper is to examine and discuss the issue of parental involvement in the light of Asian-American parents' perspectives. It is our intention that this paper will provide a frame for both American schools and Asian-American parents in their further effort of collaboration.

Parental Involvement Fact Sheets

The following are some facts listed in1994 U.S. Department of Education Report *Strong families, strong schools: Building community partnership for learning*:

* Three decades of research have shown that parental participation improves students' learning. This is true whether the child is in preschool or in the upper grades, whether the family is rich or poor, whether the parents finished high school.

* When parents are involved in their children's education in positive ways, children achieve higher grades and test scores, have better attendance at school, complete more homework, demonstrates more positive attitude and behavior, graduate at higher rates, and have greater enrollment in higher education.

* A national study of 8th grade students and their parents show that parental involvement in students' academic lives is indeed a powerful influence on students' achievement across all academic areas.

* International comparisons show the higher academic success of students from Asian countries, which many attribute to the priority their families give to education.

* One of the eight National Education Goals of the Goal 2000: Educate America Act states that "Every school will promote partnership that will increase parental involvement and participation in promoting the social, emotional, and academic growth of children."

* Teachers ranked strengthening parents' roles in their children's learning as the issue that should receive the highest priority in public education policy over the next few years.

* Forty percent of parents across the country believe that they are not devoting enough time to their children's education.

* Among students aged 10 to 13, 72 percent said they would like to talk to their parents more about schoolwork. Forth percent of older adolescents (14-17 years old) agreed.

In summary, parental involvement does have a positive effect on children's academic learning; parents are not as involved as they should in their children's schoolwork; and children, younger or older, do want their parents being involved in their schooling process.

Conceptualization of Parental Involvement

For many parents, the next question probably will be " I do want to get involved with my child's learning, but how? What is *parental involvement* anyway?"

Parental involvement can take many forms. Constantino (1995) suggests in her study there are four levels of activities that school can involve parents in their children's schooling. This frame can well be observed from the other side of the coin--levels of activities that parents get involved. The first level of involvement is to develop rapport with school and teachers. This can be achieved through informal chats, brief school/classroom visits, and get-together with school personnel in the community. This level of activities will build the ground of comfortableness for the higher levels of involvement. The second level is "information sharing". Ask about important dates of school activities such as holidays and field trips. Also, ask about curriculum--textbooks, homework routines, evaluation procedures, etc. Meanwhile, let the teacher know about your child's study habits, interested subjects, favorite books, anything you think will help the teacher know your child better.

After the level of rapport, trust, and comfort is established, parents may then begin to take a more active role in daily classroom activities and school events. This level can probably be called as "observing and learning". Parents observe classroom going on while learning how to be more involved in school related items such as homework assignments. Parents are usually comfortable participating classroom activities by helping with bulletin boards, planning events, or creating classroom materials. Many Asian parents will contribute in school's "multicultural week" by being the guest speaker or sharing artifacts or preparing authentic food for children.

The final level is known as "empowerment". Within this level, parents take on the role of community and group spokesperson. They take an active role on determining curriculum design as well as advising, planning, and developing school programs. In some states, where site-based committee is mandatory, parents will serve on the school or district level committees. Although not many parents participate on this level, parental involvement at this level can make significant differences in school decision making.

The above frame only serves as guidelines to help parents participating in their children's schooling process. The important message is parental involvement takes different forms. You are involved in your child's learning if you ask your child "How was school?" so long as you do this everyday and really listen to what your child tells you.

What Schools Sees in Asian-American Parents

The purpose of the following four sections is to open the communication line between American schools and Asian-American parents. In spite of the fact that the Asian population has been impressively increasing in the past decade or so, the fact remains Asian-Americans is the minority. To a certain degree, many of them are living

in respective cultural context that is probably very different from the mainstreaming society. On the other hand, although multicultural education has long been accepted as an important part in any American school's curriculum, for various reasons, teachers probably do not have optimal training working with minority children and/or parents. The result of this is unneeded barriers between school and families. We believe dredging the channels between school and families is absolutely necessarily for Asian-American parents to get involved in their children's schooling process.

What do American schools see in Asian-American parents? We are often asked by in-service teachers why it is so difficult for their Asian-American parents to come to school events such as teacher-parent conference or open school night. They describe Asian-American parents as "supportive"--they will do anything I ask them to, if I ask; "polite", "of few words", "well-mannered"; but not active participatory in school events. This perception of Asian-American parents is shared by many researchers. Morrow (1989) describes Southeast-Asian parental involvement as "Routine student referrals can be difficult and effective home-school communication can be almost impossible to achieve". In the same study, he also reports that one school district complained that a large number of the appointments made by Southeast-Asian parents were broken. Some educators in this district interpreted this as a lack of concern by these parents for their children's education. A number of researchers (e.g.; Lin & Fu, 1990; Chiu, 1987; Kriger & Kroes, 1972) describe Asians as "restrictive", "controlling", or "domineering". According to Chao (1996), Asian-American parents may offer more *indirect* (italic intact) types support or involvement: These involve such practices as controlling their children's use of time outside of school, providing a desk or study area, assigning extra homework problems, or purchasing extra workbook, enrolling them in supplemental courses including private music, language, or arts courses, hiring a tutor or arranging for someone to help with homework (p.7).

Although the above descriptions are only a few among the vast literature, it pretty summarizes American schools perception of Asian-American parents: supportive yet indirect.

What Asian-American Parents See in School

As Chinese-American teacher educators and parents, we often have discussion with Asian-American parents about American educational system. The most common feedback is "My child does not bring home much homework"; or "School work is too easy". These parents feel their children are wasting time doing "fun" projects instead of serious learning. As a result, they feel it's their responsibility to assign extra work to their children and/or send their to different kinds of after school classes. On the other hand, Asian-American parents do acknowledge the emphasis on cultivating students' creativity and problem solving skills in school curriculum. They also appreciate the opportunities school provides to their students the various kinds of extra curriculum activities. As many parents put it, "Thanks to school, my child is confident and outspoken now".

For parents who have a lower literacy level, especially those who experience language barriers, American school can be intimidating. Sometimes they see school routines as unnecessary delegation of teacher's responsibility on parents. One parent once commented "My child brings so many forms for me to sign. One time, they want me to sign a form, because the teacher is taking them to a farm. If that's a school activity, shouldn't the teacher take care of that?" This parent was not complaining; at the same occasion, he also said "The teachers are so nice. They see so many good things about my child. No wonder my child likes school. He doesn't hear these from home too often".

For those parents whose child is experiencing academic difficulties and they are unable to provide help, school can be disappointing. One parent was very frustrated when she referred her child's failure in math test: "I wish school could be more strict with my child. Make sure he understood it, not just say 'You can do it'. Even if I don't have much

education myself, I know 'No pain, no gain'. I wish they could make him stay after school until he got it".

We know these parents are not alone.

What Should School Know About Asian-American Parents

First of all, Asian cultural values differ greatly from American values. Be aware of the differences may help school personnel understand why Asian-American parents act the way they do. Asian-Americans hold teachers in high esteem, secondly only to parents. This notion is probably rooted in Confucian social order, namely Heaven, Earth, Emperor, Parents, and Teachers. Teachers have absolute authority over students' learning and moral conduct. It is not customary for Asian parents to question school's decisions about their children. They rely on school administrators and teachers' decisions about all school matters, from curriculum design to discipline, without regard to parental concerns or desires (Chan, 1986). Any contrary behaviors maybe interpreted as disrespectful or even arrogant. Generally speaking, the relationship between teacher and parents can be well described as give-and-take orders. Active attitude towards parental involvement in children's schooling may be seen as intervening in school affairs. Teachers do not contact parents on regular base except when the child has severe problems in school.

The seemingly lack of interest in their children's learning may also be understood from Asian's "pride and shame principle" (Morrow, 1989). In Asian culture, academic achievements and upward mobility are not viewed as personal matter, but part of children's obligation to the family (Shen & Mo, 1991). On the other hand, Asian parents take it personal for their children's success or failure. This value deeply rooted in Asian culture probably will lend itself to the understanding of why Asian parents' reluctance to discuss their children's problems and possible solutions with school personnel.

School personnel should also be aware that American educational system differs greatly from that in their native countries. Take Chinese educational system for example. For a long time, Behaviorism is the dominating theory in Chinese schools. Under this theory, stimulus-response, repetition, memorization, drills are practiced by teachers and accepted by students and parents. As a result, Asian parents may experience difficulty, even frustration understanding Constructivist philosophy implemented in many American schools now. To many Asian parents, "practice makes perfect" is still the truth. They find it hard to equate play with learning. One parent was puzzled by her seven year old son's writing--why the teacher didn't correct the wrong spelling? It is important for school and teachers to explain to the parents about their philosophy, program, and practices. Remember, Asian parents are reluctant to question school and teachers. Excessive concern could result in frustration and even disappointment, which will reinforce their attitude of not actively participating in school activities.

Finally, not all Asian students are "whiz kids". This stereotyped image of Asian students can mask the individuality and conceals real problems. If Asian students are viewed as instance success, there is less justification for assisting those who may need help (Feng, 1994). As a matter of fact, cultural adjustment, language barriers, and some cases lack of encouragement from parents constitute many Asian students' failure in school. Some Asian parents, especially the new immigrants, are struggling making ends meet they often are not aware of their children's feeling of isolation, neglect and thirst for help. The knowledge of the diversity among Asian students will help school personnel to reach out to those who need help--students and parents alike.

What Asian-American Parents Should Know About School

Just as American culture differs from Asian culture, American educational system is very different from the system in Asian countries. In order to actively participating in children's school activities, the primary thing for Asian-American parents to do is to be

familiar with American educational system. This knowledge can cover a wide range of topics--from state policies to organizational structure of district board; from school programs to subject curriculum; from teacher's philosophy to teaching style. It can be time consuming and sometimes challenging; but you can not afford being ignorant of your child's education.

For instance, are you aware that in some States, corporal punishment is absolutely forbidden while in other States, corporal punishment can be practiced under certain conditions? Do you know that parents can voice their opinion as for if they want their child have sex education in school? Do you realize that school district's policy about censorship will directly change your child's reading list? If you have concerns about schools doing about your child's education, do you know the proper channel that will allow your voice be heard?

Are you familiar with the term "whole language"? Why is the teacher so proud of your child's writing when in your eye it is full of grammar and spelling error? Why does your child insist on your reading the books with her/him and even writing a journal together? Why does the teacher give so many messy fun projects in science and math instead of a neat workbook? Why does your child often ask for things such as artifacts, family photos to take to school? What does a letter such "S" or "N" mean in your child's progress report? In a word, do you really know what's going on in your child's education? If your answer is "not sure", how is it possible for you to be involved in your child's learning? Sense of empowerment is not privilege of those parents who serve at site base committee or involved in curriculum designing. It is every parent's right. If Asian parents were known as lack of interest in school affairs, it is time for a change.

Meet the Challenge

For many Asian parents, the primary motivation for leaving homeland to settle down in the United States is for the sake of children's education. It is true that you are still adjusting to the new environment; your immediate responsibility to your family is to provide stable financial resource; you really don't understand American educational system; and you probably are too shy to ask for help. But, your child is growing everyday. She/he will not wait for you to get ready. If you were courageous enough to move your family to a very different society, you are not afraid of challenges--challenges that will enable to help your child succeed in school, challenges that will empower you to be a responsible citizen. Asian-Americans are not born to succeed. We are fighters.

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The Internal Consistency and Factor Structure of a Translation of the Chinese Student Developmental Task and Lifestyle Inventory

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Abstract

This study was initiated in an effort to validate a translation instrument implemented in Taiwan. It was conducted to estimate the internal consistency and factor structure of the Translation of the Chinese Student Developmental Task and Lifestyle Inventory (TCSDTLI). The study results show that the internal consistency and factor structure of the TCSDTLI were highly similar to the original English version. Two minor changes in the TCSDTLI were recommended.

Introduction

To encourage college students to deal more effectively with development tasks, it is first necessary to help them recognize their present level of development. Once they know their present level of development, students will be more successful in promoting their future growth and development. One way of assessing the level of student development is through inventory measurement.

Prince, Miller, and Winston (1974) designed the Student Developmental Task Inventory (SDTI) to assess college students' developmental tasks. They used the theoretical constructs formulated by Chickering (1969) in the construction of their instrument. The instrument consisted of items representative of behaviors that indicated the successful completion of certain developmental tasks. It presented samples of self-reported behaviors, feelings, and attitudes that students could be expected to demonstrate or express when they satisfactorily accomplished a developmental task. SDTI-2, the first revision of the SDTI was completed in 1979 (Winston, Miller, & Prince, 1979). However, a number of critics suggested that the inventory still needed revision (Mines, 1982; Winston & Polkosnik, 1986) because social changes since 1969 could affect the basic definition of psychosocial developmental tasks. Therefore, Winston, Miller and Prince (1987) revised the SDTI-2 and created a third version of the inventory, then changed the title of the instrument to the Student Developmental Tasks and Lifestyle Inventory (SDTLI).

The usefulness of the three versions of the instrument as a research tool has been well documented (Prince, et al., 1974; Winston, et al., 1979, 1987), and the reliability and validity of these three versions of instruments have been reported by Winston et al. (1987). According to Stonewater, Daniels and Heischmidt (1986), Itzkowize and Petrie (1988), Winston (1990), all three versions have been useful assessment instruments for measuring college students' developmental tasks.

Until recently in Taiwan, there were no complete student development task inventories to use with college students. If professionals in student affairs do not know the level of students' development, they have difficulty in promoting student development. In order to measure the present state of Taiwanese college students' development, Taiwanese college student affairs professionals need to obtain an appropriate assessment tool.

The third version of the Student Development Task and Lifestyle Inventory (Winston et al., 1987) has been standardized for American college students. Guo (1993)

translated this inventory to Mandarin Chinese and examine its reliability. However, no validity estimate was reported. Making use of this translation, the current study estimates the reliability and construct validity of various tasks, subtasks and scales of the TCSDTLI for use with Taiwanese college students. The investigator hopes that the TCSDTLI can be a cornerstone for the future development of a formal Chinese Student Development Task Inventory.

Method

Participants

The participants were 350 Taiwanese college students enrolled in two colleges and one university in Taipei, Taiwan during spring semester 1995. Thirty-three percent of participants were males and 67 percent were females. Thirty percent of participants were freshmen, 62 percent were sophomores, and 8 percent were juniors or seniors.

Instrument

The Translation Chinese Student Developmental Task and Lifestyle Inventory (TCSDTLI) was used for this study. This inventory was granted permission to be translated from Winston et al.'s (1987) SDTLI by Guo (1993) and revised for current study. Both inventories include three tasks and three scales,as follows: The first task is Establishing and Clarifying Purpose Task (PUR). Students who scored high on this task indicated that they (a) have explored educational goals and are self-directed learners (Educational Involvement, EI); (b) have an accurate knowledge about themselves and the world of work to make appropriate career plans (Career Planning, CP); (c) have established a direction and plan for their life (Lifestyle Planning, LP); (d) have the ability to manage their environment to fulfill their needs (Life Management, LM); and (e) are involved in various cultural activities (Cultural Participation, CUP).

The second task is Developing Mature Interpersonal Relationship Task (MIR). A high score on this task indicated that students (a) have developed relationships with peers (Peer Relationship, PR); (b) are able to accept others with different backgrounds (Tolerance, TOL); and (c) are able to trust their own feelings and are free from away needing approval from others (Emotional Autonomy, EA).

The third task is Academic Autonomy (AA). Students who scored high in this task indicated that they have the ability to deal well with ambiguity and to control their behaviors to attain their personal goals.

The first scale is the Salubrious Lifestyle Scale (SL). Students who scored high in this scale indicated that their lifestyle is consistent with good health and wellness practice. The second scale is Intimacy Scale (INT). A high score in this scale indicated that students are able to build good relationships with others with a high level of mutual respect and trust. The third scale is Response Bias Scale (RB). A high score on this scale indicated that students tend to project an inflated or an unrealistically favorable self portrait.

The reliability and validity of the SDTLI have been reported by Winston et al. (1987). Test-retest reliability used to estimate the stability of the instrument over time. The correlation coefficient ranged from .70 to .88 (four week) and ranged from .74 to .89 (two week). The coefficient alpha, inter-item and item-total correlations procedures provide to estimate internal consistency. Alpha coefficients ranged from .90 (PUR) to .50 (RB). Mean inter-item correlations ranged from .10 (MIR) to .24 (SL). Mean item-total correlations ranged from .21 (CUP) to .41 (SL). The reliability of TCSDTLI reported by Guo (1993) were .80 for overall test-retest correlation, and .90 for the internal consistency coefficient.

Translation Procedure

For making the TCSDTLI read more naturally as a Chinese text, the researcher used the following translation process: First, four Chinese doctoral students who currently

studied at a U.S. university reviewed the CSDTLI (Guo, 1993). Second, a Chinese literature teacher was consulted in editing the new translation version. Third, the new CSDTLI was back-translated into English by a bilingual Chinese professor who has taught in a U.S. university for over ten years. Fourth, three U.S. student development professionals compared the back-translation with the original English version. They ranked items of the back-translation according to comparability and similarity to the SDTLI from 1 (extremely comparable) through 4 (moderately comparable) to 7 (not at all comparable).

Fifth, there were 19 items that received two or more scores of greater than 3; these items were rewritten. Steps 3 and 4 were repeated once. Finally, the three U.S. student development professionals were confident that all items were interpreted in the same manner of both the back-translation and the SDTLI.

Statistical Methods

In this study, the Cronbach alpha coefficients were used to estimate the internal consistency. Factor analysis techniques were used to analyze the data for presenting the intercorrelations among the tasks, subtasks and scales.

Results

Estimate the Internal Consistency

The Cronbach's alpha coefficients comparison among current and Guo's (1993) CSDTLI and SDTLI revealed in Table 1. In sum, CUP subtask was less than .60 on all three studies. TOL subtask and EA subtask were less than .60 on both the current study and Winston et al.'s (1987) study. All of the subtasks of MIR task were less than .60 for the current study.

Task, Subtask and Scale Intercorrelation

Intercorrelations among tasks, subtasks and scales are reported in Table 2. In the current study, it is evident that subtasks were correlated more highly with the task to which they were assigned and to the subtasks under that task than to any other subtasks. The PUR and MIR tasks were relatively independent of each other. As Table 2 reveals, the subtasks EI, CP, LP, LM and CUP correlate highly with the PUR task. However, the CUP subtask correlates weakly with the CP and LP subtasks. In Winston et al.'s (1987) study, the CUP subtask correlated weakly with only the LP subtask. The subtasks PR, TOL and EA correlated highly with the MIR task. However, the EA subtask correlated weakly with the TOL subtask. The AA task was highly correlated with PUR and MIR tasks, and the INT and SL scales appear to be relatively independent of the other measures. However, in the current study, the SL scale is relatively highly correlated with the PUR task. In both studies, the RB scale appears independent of the tasks, subtasks, and other scales.

Overall, the current study's findings are consistent with Winston et al's (1987) study results. There are differences between the two studies only in the following: the current study found that, unlike the expected high correlations, the CUP subtask correlated weakly with the CP subtask (r = .22), the EA subtask correlated weakly with the TOL subtask (r = .28). On the other hand, unlike the expected low correlation, the SL scale correlated highly with the PUR task (r = .50). These inconsistencies may be due to cultural differences and problems with translation.

Factor Structure Analysis

Factor analysis was undertaken to analyze the TCSDTLI structure. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequency for the analysis was .57. The Bartlett test of sphericity = 1294.63, $P < .00$. Two factors emerged from the rotation based on the screen

test (Cattell, 1966) and Kaiser (1960) criteria (i.e. eigenvalues > 1.0); the results of this analysis appear in Table 3.

Table 3 presents the eigenvalues, variance accounted for by the factors, and the rotated factor loading for the tasks, subtasks and scales. As can be seen in Table 3, Factor 1 contained EI, CP, LP, LM, and CUP subtasks which were assigned to the PUR task. Factor 2 contained TOL, PR, and EA subtasks which were assigned to the MIR task. The INT scale loaded weakly on both factors in the current study, but they loaded moderately (.32 and .29) in both factors in Winston's (1990) study. In the current study, the SL scale loaded highly (.60) on factor 1, but loaded moderately (.30) in the Winston's (1990) study. The AA task did not emerge as a separate factor and loaded almost equally on the two factors in both the current study and the Winston (1990) study.

Overall, the findings of the current study are consistent with Winston's (1990) study. However, while Winston found that the SL scale and INT scale loaded moderately on factor 1 and factor 2, the current study found that the INT scale loaded weakly on both factors but the SL scale loaded highly on factor 1. In the current study, perhaps the SL scale can be combined with the PUR task, while the INT scale remains independent.

Discussion

This study found that the TCSDTLI has poor internal consistency in the two subtasks (LP and CUP) of the PUR task, in all three subtasks (PR, TOL, and EA) of the MIR task, and in two scales (SL and RB). The CUP subtask has a low Cronbach alpha coefficient in the Winston et al. (1987) study and in both of the two Chinese studies, while two subtasks (TOL and EA) of MIR and the RB scale have low Cronbach alpha coefficients in both the current study and the Winston et al.'s (1987) study.

The factor structure for the PUR task and the MIR task was consistent; however, there is a poor correlation between the CUP subtask and the PUR task. The SL scale loaded highly on the PUR task, and the AA task did not emerge as a separate factor and loaded almost equally on both the PUR task and the MIR task.

The results of these studies suggest that the items in the above tasks, subtasks, and scales need to be improved with respect to internal consistency and subtask correlation. The similarity between the internal consistency coefficients and the factor structure of the TCSDTLI and the SDTLI demonstrates a great degree of commonality. The results show that the TCSDTLI's Cronbach alpha coefficients and the structures generally follow patterns similar to the SDTLI. Thus, the current study results seem to support the viewpoint of Guilford (1965) and Winston et al. (1987) that developmental tasks exist in multiple cultures. Therefore, the SDTLI may be translated to Chinese and used on Taiwanese students.

The above findings must, however, be interpreted with some caution in the determination of the culture-fairness of this test. The evidence of internal consistency and structure of inventory was a necessary but not sufficient condition for fair testing among culturally diverse groups. Two recommendations arise from the current study: First, one task, the MIR task, one subtask, the CUP subtask and one scale, the SL scale, should be revised again to make them more consistent with Chinese culture, and item response analysis should be conducted to detect either translation errors or differences in cultural relevance or meaning for each item. Second, item analysis should be used to examine the correlation between each item on the test and the total score for the test. When the correlation between performance on a single item and the total test score is low, the item is probably measuring something different than the other items, and it would be worthwhile to exclude this item or revise its contents.

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Table 1
The Cronbach's Alpha Coefficients Comparison between Chinese and English SDTLI

Task/Subtask /Scale	Current Study N=350	Guo(1993) N=120	Winston et al (1987) (N=1200)
PUR	.89	.86	.90
EI	.75	.64	.75
CP	.82	.83	.80
LP	.49	.60	.62
LM	.69	.67	.69
CUP	.55	.50	.45
MIR	.69	.88	.76
PR	.48	.76	.75
TOL	.53	.67	.55
EA	.41	.72	.55
AA	.60	.77	.70
INT	.61	.97	.70
SL	.57	.55	.71
RB	.47		
Total		.91	.93

Table 2
The Intercorrelations of Tasks, Subtasks and Scales Comparison between Chinese and English SDTLI

	PUR	EI	CP	LP	LM	CUP	MIR	PR	TOL	EA	AA	INT	SL
EI	.83												
	(.73)												
CP	.80	.53											
	(.69)	(.67)											
LP	.76	.54	.60										
	(.59)	(.51)	(.54)										
LM	.77	.59	.38	.56									
	(.61)	(.55)	(.49)	(.47)									
CUP	.48	.34	.22	.29	.34								
	(.43)	(.42)	(.33)	(.23)	(.41)								
MIR	.08	.08	.02	-.02	.09	.08							
	(.26)	(.29)	(.10)	(.08)	(.21)	(.21)							
PR	.16	.10	.07	.05	.17	.09	.84						
	(.23)	(.26)	(.16)	(.13)	(.19)	(.15)	(.21)						
TOL	-.02	.02	-.13	-.09	.03	.06	.72	.40					
	(.17)	(.19)	(.13)	(.03)	(.14)	(.18)	(.49)	(.44)					
EA	.30	.05	.08	-.03	-.03	.01	.71	.41	.28				
	(.19)	(.24)	(.14)	(.02)	(.16)	(.17)	(.50)	(.45)	(.38)				
AA	.31	.27	.17	.22	.42	.07	.40	.41	.27	.22			
	(.41)	(.37)	(.27)	(.25)	(.45)	(.16)	(.17)	(.50)	(.45)	(.38)			
INT	.08	.11	.07	.09	.09	.09	.19	.15	.06	.06	.21		
	(.33)	(.29)	(.25)	(.27)	(.26)	(.19)	(.28)	(.27)	(.23)	(.14)	(.26)		
SL	.50	.39	.31	.40	.35	.20	.11	.18	.14	.13	.29	.14	
	(.28)	(.24)	(.17)	(.14)	(.35)	(.19)	(.19)	(.19)	(.11)	(.15)	(.30)	(.18)	
RB	.03	.02	.01	.07	.13	.03	-.14	-.04	-.11	-.17	.04	.01	.24
	(.00)	(-.03)	(-.06)	(.05)	(.07)	(.02)	(-.08)	(.08)	(-.09)	(.02)	(.03)	(.18)	(.06)

NOTE: N = 350
English SDTLI--Winston et al (1987) N = 1200

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TABLE 3
The Factor Structure Comparison between Chinese and English SDTLI

Task/Subtask/Scale	Factor 1	Factor 2
Eigenvalues	4.23	2.84
Variance	30.20	20.30
PUR	.95	.04
EI	.80 (.80)	.06 (.20)
CP	.73 (.75)	-.03 (.07)
LP	.79 (.66)	-.06 (-.01)
LM	.79 (.71)	.09 (.20)
CUP	.48 (.44)	.06 (.16)
MIR	.01	.98
TOL	-.09 (.12)	.72 (.61)
PR	.12 (.07)	.80 (.71)
EA	-.01 (.08)	.69 (.61)
AA	.37 (.37)	.5 (.44)
INT	.10 (.32)	.20 (.29)
SL	.60 (.30)	.12 (.24)
RB	.14	-.17

NOTE: N = 350
English SDTLI--Winston (1990), N = 954

「1997台灣教育長期研究」之研究設計

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「1997台灣教育長期研究」的研究架構與具體的調查內容，以NELS:88爲主要參考依據，再根據台灣地區的教育情境修定而成，以NELS:88爲主要參考的且原因，是因爲它是美國NCES三種教育長期研究中，最晚近搜集且所搜集之資料的對象最完整的一個；另外也因其研究對象的起始層級(八年級)比較接近「1997台灣教育長期研究」的目標對象（小學六年級）。

至於進行這項調查所需的研究流程，以及工作組織與人員，則以NELS:88與具本土調查經驗的中研院「社會變遷調查」爲本研究進行規劃的主要參考依據。

一、研究架構和調查內容

圖一的研究架構圖即是針對影響學生學習的四大相關因素群（學校、學生、家長、教師）進行調查，再分析這四種因素群中各種要素和學生學習結果的相互關係。

圖一 「1997台灣教育長期研究」研究架構圖（略）

TELS:97的調查是以學生爲核心，在抽樣全國4200位國小六年級小學生後，再同時對所抽樣學生的父母、教師、所就讀學校進行調查，經由辨識號碼(Identification Number)的連結，這四組問卷可互相結合使用，以進行各項因果關係的分析，學生、父母、教師、及學校問卷的項目加起來有近千項目，在每一項目幾乎都可當成一個變項(variable)的情況下，在加上其長期研究的性質，這樣一個資料組(data set)自然可提供不同領域的學者，從不同角度來分析與探討教育的各種問題。

表一說明了TELS:97基礎年的調查內容大要，以後的追蹤調查也將根據此內容大要做修正及發展。有關針對台灣教育情境修訂的部分，主要在調查內容的項目上，增列台灣特有的一些教育現象，如課後輔導、校外補習、對體罰的行爲和態度等，此內容大要也將接受諮詢顧問組的專家學者的建議後作修正補充。

表一 「1997 台灣教育長期研究」調查內容大要

問卷對象 內容種類	學 生	父 母	教 師	學 校
基本資料	學生性別、出生年月	父母性別、出生年月	教師性別、出生年月	學校類別(公私立別、城鄉別...) 學校規模、班級規模 附設(實驗班、特教班...)
族群	自我報告族群別	父母族群別	教師族群別	學校(學生和教師)的族群比例)
家庭狀況	兄弟姐妹人數 祖父母同住情況	兄弟姐妹人數 父母婚姻狀況 家中宗教信仰 家中語言使用	對學生由於家庭狀況所產生問題的感覺(如語文流利度、健康、情緒...)	單親及隔代教養學生比例
社經地位	父母職業、教育 資本財項目(如電腦、網路、錄放影機等)	父母職業、教育、收入		
工作情況	有收入的打工情形 參與家計生產活動	父母就業狀況	教師就業狀況、專業承諾、效能信念	
學校氣氛	學生自陳的教室常規 學生的抽煙、酗酒、藥物濫用的態度 學生對体罰的看法和經驗	父母對學校功能、氣氛、政策決定的看法 對教師體罰的態度	教師對體罰的態度和行爲 教師對抽煙、酗酒等學生問題的態度	教師士氣、學生成績評分方式、學生學業競爭情形、學生打架、偷竊、搶奪及口語傷害情形
學校功課	學生自陳的遲到、缺席、做家庭作業的情形、及對數學、國語、自然科、社會科的態度	爲子女課業和學校聯絡情形、對子女功課的幫忙、在家用電腦情形	指定的家庭作業 所用教學方法和材料 學生遲到、缺席情形 語文、數學、自然、社會的主要教學涵蓋內容	學生遲到、缺席比例 期望學生家庭作業所做的程度
學校表現	學校自陳的成績 數學、語文、自然、社會科的表現(標準化測驗)	父母對小孩成績的期望	老師對學生學業表現的印象	學生的在校成績
輔導	學生陳述的可以接受諮詢的(如教育計劃、工作生涯、個人問題等)學校人員、或人親戚或朋友	父母在家和子女談論學校、升學計劃和功課的情形	輔導學生的次數和經驗	學校可提供學生輔導諮詢的資源程度
放學後的督導及活動	父母的指導 課外活動 課後補習及才藝班	父母的督導 放學後的安排(課輔班、才藝班等)	教師教授課後輔導情形(校內、校外)	學校提供課後輔導情形
社區的參與	家庭生活、鄰里活動的參與、文化活動經驗	家庭生活、設區活動(圖書館借書、參加	教師在社區活動情形及與社區之關聯	學校提供社區活動場所的程度

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		音樂會、展覽)參與社區團體活動等	
意見和價值	自我概念 控制信念 對自己意見	和教育有關的信念、價值和意見	教師對該受訪學生的印象
財務支持		對子女未來教育的財務幫助計劃	學生接受助學的比例(各種清寒獎助學金)

二、研究流程

如表二所示， TELS:97 的完整研究流程主要有:第一年的基礎年調查、第二年的資料管理和受訪者聯繫、第三年的第一次追蹤調查、第四年的資料合併和受訪者聯繫、第五年的第二次追蹤調查、第六年的資料合併管理和受訪者聯繫、及後續的追蹤調查。但向國科會申請的研究計劃，將只包含從基礎年至第二次追蹤調查之資料合併與管理之六年計劃(可分兩次申請，以符合國科會的規定)。總計將進行學生問卷調查三次(第一年、第三年、第五年)，學科測驗兩次(第一年小學、第三年國中)，入學成績分析一次(第五年高中)；另外，也進行兩次輟學者問卷調查(國中和高中各一次)。學校問卷調查兩次，第一年小學問卷、第三年國中問卷各一次。教師問卷調查兩次，第一年小學教師問卷、第三年國中教師問卷各一次。父母問卷調查兩次，基礎年和第五年之第二次追蹤調查各一次。

表二 「1997 台灣教育長期研究」研究流程

階段(時間)	調查對象	調查內容要項	教育決策相關議題	工作步驟	經費預估
基礎年調查 Bass Year Survey 86.8-87.7	小學六年級學生	①背景資料 ②基本學科知能測驗(語文、數學、自然、社會) ③情意態度:自我概念、目標、態度與價值 ④行為:課業活動與社會活動關係		問卷設計(含 Refinement of Project Design) 測驗編製 預測(Field Test & Pilot Test)	
	小學六年級教師	①對學生特點和在課堂表現的評量(Evaluation) ②課程(Curriculum)內容和進行過程 ③背景資料(Demogrphic 和專業特性) ④學校活動(如教師間的活動、教師家長的互		抽樣及資料蒐集: 學生(含學科測驗) 教師 家長 學校	

	小學六年級學生家長 就讀學校	動，對各種任務的投入程度) ⑤對學校文化和學校氣氛的感受(Perceptions) ①對子女教育期望 ②提供經濟資源給子女教育的意願程度 ③家庭的教育參與和支持行為 ④其它與子女學習行為相關的項目 ①教師描述 ②學校氣氛 ③學生整體的特性 ④學校政策及特別措施			
87.7-88.7				1.資料處理與資料管理 2.受訪者聯繫(Tracking)	
第一次追蹤調查 1st Follow-up 88.8-89.7	國二生 教師 學校	原問卷調查 第二次學科測驗 輟學者問卷		資料蒐集：學生，教師，學校，輟學者	
89.8-90.7				資料合併與管理 受訪者聯繫	
第二次追蹤調查 2nd Follow-up 90.8-91.7	高一生 輟學者 家長	原問卷調查 入學測驗成績 輟學者問卷		資料蒐集:學生，父母，非在學者	
91.8-92.7				資料合併與管理 受訪者聯繫	
後續追蹤調查 Later Followups 92.8-	在學(高三，大二) 非在學生	升學志向 入學成績 職業取向 工作經驗			

三、工作組織及人員

由於 TELS:97 計劃的主要目的在於邀集各方教育專家學者,廣泛蒐集全國代表性的大量教育研究資料以供各界使用，它本身並不直接從事特定專題研究,所以以個別型的大型計劃來進行比整合型計劃似乎更恰當．整個計劃的推動將依功能分成四組，如表三所示，分述如下，諮詢顧問組主要提供對研究架構和調查內容的專業意見，以供研究設計組參考修正計劃內容；主要參與人員爲各學科領域的專家學者和教育決策官員．研究設計組依據諮詢顧問組提供之意見，確定調查內容要項,並進行學生、家長、教師與學校四種問卷的編定，及編制國語、數學、自然、社會四科標準化測驗量表；主要參與人員爲研究人員和學者專家，資料蒐集組在問卷及量表完成後，隨即進行抽樣、訪員(施測員)訓練、聯繫受測學校、及實際施測、訪談等工作；主要參與人員爲研究人員及專、兼任研究助理，資料行政組負責回收問卷的整理、輸入、檢定、連結，以及

受訪者的住址追蹤，追蹤調查資料和基礎年資料的合併，和資料的推廣使用等；主要參與人員爲研究人員及專、兼任研究助理。

表三 「1997 台灣教育長期研究」工作組織及參與人員

分工	工作要項	參與人員	備註
諮詢顧問組	學科及專門領域諮詢： 課程與教學 教育行政學 教育心理學 教育社會學 測驗與評量 社會學 心理學 統計學 其他	學者專家 教育決策官員	
研究設計組	學生問卷 學科測驗 教師問卷 學校問卷 家長問卷	研究人員 學者專家	學科測驗可考慮委外發展
資料搜集組	抽樣 訪員訓練 聯繫 訪談	研究人員 專兼任研究助理	
資料行政組	資料整理(含輸入及檢定) 受訪者追蹤 資料合併 資料推廣	研究人員 專兼任研究助理	

四、可行性之評估

在詳細說明過「1997 台灣教育長期研究」之研究設計內容後，接著對於這項設計的可行性作進行評估。本文認爲，「教育長期研究」和「教育研究資料庫」的成功建立有賴下列五個條件的配合：觀念、研究人才、以往研究的基礎、製作與管理技術、制度與經費。

1、觀念的條件

第一爲觀念的條件，教育決策者(教育部)和科研決策者(國科會)需有「長期投資」的觀念，因爲「教育長期研究」所呈現的效用是長期的、累積的，不能立竿見影式的快速回收，教育研究者需有「合作互補」的觀念，減少「單打獨鬥」、「各自爲政」式的消耗資源又不容易有累積性成果的研究。

經本期研究之初步調查和訪談許多教育決策官員[1]，他們對該「教育長期研究」和「教育研究資料庫」之了解或有深淺，但皆對有系統的搜集、運用具體調查資料來做有政策性導向的研究，表示贊同與興趣。

許多教育研究學者[2]，也都表示對「教育長期研究」和「教育研究資料庫」的興趣和需求。他們認爲這項長期研究的推動，除了可帶來豐富的實徵經驗資料，以作爲教育學術研究的根據，也可作爲教育政策研究的堅實基礎。目前台灣的教育有待改革，然而要制定改革的政策，必須有豐富的實徵資料與紮實的研究爲基礎，這正是教育長期研究的主要目標之一。

上述的調查與訪談中，不論教育決策官員的決策需求或教育研究者的研究需求，都認爲「教育長期研究」和「教育研究資料庫」的建立將有正面的供給效果，可見觀念條件已相當具備。

2、研究人才的條件

第二是人才的條件。人才的條件分兩部分，一爲建立這項「教育研究資料庫」的籌劃人才，由有製作及使用經驗的學者專家擔任；二爲各相關領域的教育研究人才，由他們和籌劃人才共同討論搜集資料的概念架構，並提供所欲搜集資料的具體項目。

就研究人才而論，至民國 84 年國內教育學門的教學研究人才，有教授及副教授級共 1697 人，具有博士學位者約 1100 人(梁恒正，1995:4)；加上受過嚴格訓練並有豐富研究經驗的教育相關研究者，如社會學門、統計學門等，可說是人才不虞匱乏。

3、以往研究的基礎

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[1] 經訪談的教育決策及執行官員有：楊政務次長朝祥、林參事來發、技職司吳司長清基、教育資料館陳前館長漢宗及楊秘書永慶、前統計室張統計長耀宗及楊科長永晴、前電算中心曾主任憲雄、前教研會李主任孟諺等人；另也包含前教改會召集人李遠哲博士及曾憲政博士。

[2] 經訪談及書函聯絡的教育研究學者有：林考試委員清江、中正大學黃教授光雄、花蓮師院陳校長伯璋、台灣師大黃教授政傑、梁教授恒正、沈教授六、余教授霖、李教授虎雄、潘教授慧玲、國立台北師院曾教授中偉；政台大學馬教授信行；淡江大學高教授熏芳；另教育部統計處楊科長永晴亦曾數次接獲教授主動向其探尋類似的資料庫。

第三是以往研究基礎的條件。以往國內教育研究已有不少的成果，以國科會補助之教育學門專題研究計劃來看，最近幾年每年都有近百件，若看所通過之研究獎助案，也從每年一百餘篇到三百餘篇(梁恒正，1995:6)。若加上科學教育類，以及歷年來各校的教育學學位論文和學報論文數量(陳伯璋，1996)，所累積的教育研究已相當可觀。

事實上，包含本文所評論的53篇論文在內的諸多國內教育研究報告及論文，都已在一些個別的教育專門領域內提供了不少基礎，國內也已有一些大型教育研究計劃，成功的以多面向的角度來探討教育的議題，譬如黃昆輝(1978)抽樣國三學生3338人、導師567人、學校行政人員及教師3288人，針對國中生的智育、德育實施成效及師資、設備、經費情形進行綜合探討；林清江(1980)抽樣國小六年級學生1900人、國三學生2000人、高二學生1900人及學校行政人員及教師98人，針對中小學公民教育的內涵及實施成效進行調查分析；黃政傑(1993)針對入學學生、師資、課程與教學、設備與經費等四大類目，進行高中學校的基本調查。如果以後類似這樣的研究可以在每一時程(如每十年)就綜合起來做，擴大訪問對象至家長，並加以追蹤調查，就形成了本文所欲推動的大型教育長期研究的資料(張善楠，1995)。

4、製作與管理技術的條件

第四爲製作與管理技術的條件。因爲調查所收集之原始資料必須轉換成電腦可讀之磁片、磁帶、光碟等形式，形成個別的資料組（ data set ），由所有資料組形成一資料庫（ database ）；再由研究者（單位）購買使用或經學術網路出租使用，這些過程需要一定程度的技術與管理的條件。經訪談教育部電算中心和統計處二單位，上述製作技術和管理運用技術已經具備。

5、制度與經費的條件

第五爲制度和經費的條件，只有在科研決策機構（國科會）或教育決策機構(教育部)在制度和經費上的支持，「教育長期研究」才可能有效的推動，因爲這是一項需長期計劃、長期管理、長期運用，並不斷補充資料的工作。

目前國內雖沒有像美國有專設立之全國教育統計中心（ NCES ）負責該類資料的統籌管理和運用，但國科會已經在制度上鼓勵大型及

整合型的研究計劃，並允許一次申請三年的研究計劃，教育部也有教研會負責政策導向的教育研究。這些制度已經爲六年期的教育長期研究奠下可行之基礎。

五、結論

「1997 台灣教育長期研究」的主要目的，在於蒐集和教育現象有關的全國代表性的大量調查資料，以供學術界和教育決策單位使用。它是一個包含影響學習的四大因素群（學生、家長、教師、學校）和跨越六年時間的教育研究資料蒐集計劃。本先期研究提供國內外相關文獻的分析、整理，以及研究架構的擬訂工作。

本先期研究共蒐集 53 篇和教育有關的學術期刊論文及碩博士論文，針對五項指標進行分析：所蒐集的資料變項是否涵蓋上述四大因素群的各面向，資料是否能有效地評估變項間的因果關係，樣本是否能夠代表台灣地區，社經地位、族群和地域的資料蒐集與測量方式是否適當，所編製各項量表的評估、修正與運用是否適當，分析後發現，固然這些研究發現或印證了許多和學習相關的變項，但由於資料蒐集涵括性之不足，且絕大多數的研究都是採用橫斷面資料的調查研究，讓研究者無法精確評估變項間的因果關係；又因不同的研究採用不同的測量，使所得到的種種不同研究發現，無法累積、比較、及綜合分析，因此也就無法藉著這些研究成果來判斷台灣地區影響學生學習的重要因素，也無法對台灣地區的教育結果和變遷過程進行總體性的描述和分析，這使得豐富的教育研究對於教育理論和假設的檢證或修正能力，變得模糊而不確定；也不容易根據研究發現對實務面的教學工作或政策制定提出可靠的建議。

因此本先期研究建議，參考美國 NCES 所進行的各項教育調查和國內中研院的社會變遷調查研究的方式，成立一個專業組織來統籌全國性的教育調查研究工作，以改善個別研究各自爲政且個別的資料品質又未見理想的情形。「1997 台灣教育長期研究」，可視爲該項調查研究工作的起步。本先期研究根據美國 NELS:88 的調查，和對近年來台灣教育研究的綜合探討後，提出「1997 台灣教育長期研究」的研究架構、調查內容大要、研究流程、和工作體等建議。

經評估觀念、研究人才、以往研究的基礎、製作與管理技術、制度與經費等五項條件之後，本文認爲，台灣已具備發展「教育長期研究」和「教育研究資料庫」的基本條件。長久之計，有必要建立一個全國性的教育研究專業機構，來統籌長期追蹤調查之進行，並管理全國性的教育研究資料庫。在該專業機構未成立之前，可仿照中研院社會變遷調查計劃，由國科會資助第一次的長期追蹤調查研究計劃；並由國科會及受委託單位邀集國內外教育研究相關專家學者及統計學專家，成立研究專案諮詢小組，以指導調查之進行。

如果教育研究者能體認到當前教育研究有待突破的侷限性，則國科會教育學學門告中所呼籲的「鼓勵跨學門的整體研究」和「兼重縱貫性與橫斷性研究」、「研究主題兼顧理論與實務的均衡」、「建立教育研究資料庫以推動長期性研究」(梁恒正，1995；陳伯璋，1996)，都是一針見血的見解。本文所提出的教育長期研究，正是對上述見解的誠懇和具體的回應。

總之，爲台灣地區的教育及學習現象留下歷史紀錄，爲教育決策單位提供更堅實具體的教育訊息，爲國內的教育研究蒐集更能互相累積、比較的實徵資料，也爲台灣教育學術的國際化提供另一道橋樑，我們提出「1997台灣教育長期研究」計劃草案，做爲建立台灣地區「教育研究資料庫」的重要一步，希望獲得各界的支持、建議、和修正。

參考文獻

A.引用文獻 (37 citations) upon request

B.評論文獻 (53 citations) upon request

謝辭

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Classroom Activities for Enhancing Effectiveness in Teaching the Chinese Language

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Abstract

Learning activities provide a wide range of dynamic ways of adding variety to a classroom. They may serve as a complementary source of inspiration to a basic textbook. Particularly in the case of Chinese language teaching, where a paucity of materials still exist, these activities enhance effectiveness in the classroom. They stresses students' participation, cooperation, producing their own linguistic output, and subconscious language acquisition.

Motivation is widely believed to be the key to successful learning. Although motivation comes largely from within the individual, certain external factors (success/failure, encouragement, anxiety, rewards) can have a positive or negative influence. In order to devise the best possible environment for language skills to flourish, these interactive tasks must reduce stress and individual anxiety while focusing on the students' interests and creative abilities. The combination of competition and cooperation serves to propel students into more efficient language acquisition. Engaging students in listening, conversing, reading, and writing increases their confidence in Chinese. At the same time, their skills in the new language are gradually developed.

Most in-class exercises are game-oriented or contain an element of fun. Almost all activities are designed to include pair or group work to create a cooperative environment and warmed atmosphere. By inciting a student's competitive nature tends to assist in overcoming fears about using an unfamiliar language. In the case of learning a difficult foreign language such as Chinese, this approach is most effective.

Using classroom activities as an aid to facilitate language acquisition puts a student at ease with Chinese and makes him more inclined to adopt the language in real-life situations.

From Theory to Practice: an Application of Theme Cycle in Chinese Language Instruction

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Introduction

School age children in the United States live in a very complex environment with many options open to them and many factors ready to influence them. More than ever before, the interdependent global economy requires that these children be prepared with bilingual and cross-cultural skills so that they can remain competitive and productive in a multilingual and multicultural society. There has always been a strong desire among immigrant language groups in the United States to learn English to maintain their home language and to become bilingual and bicultural (Fishman, 1966). In the context of Chinese American families, for example, the desire for children to maintain their home language and culture is very strong, hence Chinese American communities have made continuous efforts to create opportunities for the younger generations of Chinese Americans to maintain their home language and culture (Chang, 1994; 1997). As a result of such a strong desire, community-based Chinese language schools have flourished in recent years (Chang, 1997). As more students enter Chinese language schools, these dedicated teachers' involvement in Chinese language instruction has increased as well. Therefore, it is important to generate professional development opportunities for these teachers and to explore effective instructional methodologies in Chinese language instruction in order to provide quality services for all students.

The present study is a part of a Chinese teacher-leader project (Chang, Lee, Chang & Lin, 1997). The project focuses on advancing an alternative inservice education model for community-based weekend Chinese language school teachers through sustained professional development activities . The project was co-sponsored by the Chinese American Educational Research and Development Association (CAERDA), Association of Northern California Chinese Schools (ANCCS), and the Division of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services (SERS) at San Jose State University. This paper presents the research findings of the implementation of theme cycle (Edelsky, Altwerger, & and Flores, 1991; Chang, 1995; Harste, Short, & Burke, 1988) within three levels of Chinese language classrooms: primary grades (kindergarten through second grades), intermediate grades (third through six grades), and secondary schools (seventh through twelfth grades) through a three-phase research process between November 1996 and August 1997.

Theoretical Framework

There are two major theoretical frameworks that form the basis of the present study. The first one is Vygotsky's (1978) sociocultural theory of learning and cognitive development. The second theoretical framework is on the perspectives on teacher beliefs and teacher change (Rueda & Garcia, 1992; Richardson, 1996; & Wespor, 1987). Other

theoretical perspectives that guided the instructional approaches included the social construction of knowledge or a whole language approach that supported the use of theme cycle and Howard Gardner's (1983) theory of multiple intelligences.

Sociocultural Theory of Learning and Cognitive Development

Since community-based weekend Chinese language schools essentially provide a social environment for Chinese American students and their families while attempting to maintain Chinese language and culture, Vygotsky's (1978) theory on sociocultural learning and cognitive development serves as a guiding principle throughout the project. This theory seems most appropriate in guiding a sustained learning community formed by volunteer administrators and teachers to pursue continuous professional development. Furthermore, theme cycle was chosen as an approach in teaching and learning to help participants (1) experience first-hand, how knowledge is socially constructed through group interactions, and mostly (2) create a community of learners for their students within their own classrooms. Since theme cycle is "a means for pursuing a line of inquiry" (Edelsky, Altwerger, & and Flores, 1991, p. 64), it generates various possibilities for students and teachers alike to engage in scientific pursuit centered around a chosen topic, thus forming various learning communities. In addition, theme cycle fosters thematic instruction. Unlike the traditionally-held belief that learning occurs best when a student assembles a body of knowledge one piece at a time, thematic instruction presents the subject domain in its entirety (Keith, 1993). Therefore, theme cycle may help Chinese language teachers acquire a student-centered, inquire-driven, and holistic instructional pedagogy that helps motivate Chinese American students in active participation in classroom instruction. In this approach, Peregoy and Boyle (1993) indicated that with teacher and adult's support, students provide input in every step in the teaching and learning process, including topic choice, selection of materials and resources, organization of projects, grouping, and manner of presenting the results.

Peregoy and Boyle (1993) describe six criteria for organizing thematic instruction to promote language development, critical thinking, independence, and interpersonal collaboration for both first and second language learners. The following is a summary of their six criteria:

1. Meaning and purpose: The content of the theme cycle is interesting and relevant to students.
2. Building on prior experience: The experiences include what they gained from in-class activities and experiences they brought from home.
3. Integrated opportunities to use oral and written language: The instructional procedures allow teachers to generate such opportunities.
4. Scaffolding for support: The instruction is provided in an atmosphere that supports students' efforts and values their accomplishments.
5. Collaboration: Working in pairs or small groups provides students with low anxiety situation.
6. Variety: The learning process encourages different modalities of learning and different ways of participation.

Perspectives on Teacher Belief and Teacher Change

The second theoretical framework relates to perspectives on teacher beliefs and teacher change. Since the mid-1980s, there has been a change of focus in teaching and teacher education. The focus has changed from teacher behaviors and skills to an emphasis on teacher thought processes (Richardson, 1996). There has been an increasing recognition that beliefs that teachers hold about teaching and learning affect their behaviors in the classroom. These beliefs are essential in improving their professional and teaching effectiveness (Rueda & Garcia, 1992). Wespor (1987) suggested that in order to

understand teaching more effectively, we have to understand the beliefs with which teachers define their work. The better we know ourselves as teachers, the more able we will be to help our students. Thus, teachers' attitudes and beliefs are important in understanding classroom practices, since beliefs affect what and how we teach. Consequently, teachers' attitudes and beliefs will affect what and how students learn (Kagan, 1990; Bullough & Baughman, 1993).

For this project, the definition of teacher beliefs is based on the work of Rueda and Garcia (1992). According to them, beliefs consist of teachers' perceptions about their work, including purpose, conception of children, curriculum development, etc., and the way they teach in the classroom. Beliefs can be further defined as a reflective, socially defined interpretation of experiences that serve as a basis for subsequent action. Richardson (1996) states that teachers' beliefs may come from their personal experience, their experience with schooling and instruction and their experience with formal knowledge such as school subject and pedagogical knowledge. These experiences in turn impact how teachers teach. Therefore, beliefs are important in the learning-to-teach process, and there is a correlation between teacher belief and teacher behavior in the classroom.

Methodology

The present study was guided by the following research questions:

1. Are there any changes in beliefs among the teachers participating in a sustained learning community with respect to the following two areas:
   a. Chinese language instruction utilizing theme cycle, and
   b. Curriculum material development for Chinese language arts?

2. Are there any similarities or differences observed among classroom-based theme cycle instructional approach across K-12 grade levels?

Research Phases

The present study was conducted through a three-phase research process (Chang, Lee, Chang, & Lin, 1997):

Phase I:

Time frame:	November 10, 1996 - February 1, 1997 (Full-day Sunday workshops were held on November 11 and January 5).
Objective:	Introducing the theoretical foundation and basic instructional procedures related to theme cycle and multiple intelligences.
Activities:	a) demonstrating the application of the theme cycle developed in Chinese language classroom; b) brainstorming on the integration of activities that enhance students' multiple intelligences; c) modeling through teacher initiated topics; and d) practicing through geographical based small group activities.

Phase II:

Time frame:	February 2, 1997 - May 3, 1997 (Full-day Sunday workshops were held on February 2 and March 16).
Objective:	Developing and field testing lesson plans and curriculum materials.
Activities:	a) implementing lesson plans utilizing the instructional approaches guided by the principles of theme cycle and multiple intelligences with a group of target students in each participating school site;

b) developing, testing, demonstrating, evaluating and critiquing theme cycle units at different grade levels; and
c) initiating the development of teachers' professional portfolio.

Phase III:

Time frame: May 4, 1997 - August 9, 1997 (Full-day Sunday workshops were held on May 4 and June 8).

Objective: Building capacity for site-based peer coaching and conference presentation
a) refining and aligning lesson plan format for theme cycle across primary, intermediate, and secondary grades;
b) monitoring the integration of activities that enhance the uses of students' multiple intelligences; and
b) preparing training manual for professional development for Chinese language teachers.

The action research techniques (McNiff, 1995; Sagor, 1992) were utilized to address the guiding research questions. The present project essentially focused on studying the processes involved in implementing theme cycle and multiple intelligences in K - 12 classrooms by Chinese language teachers in Northern California. The findings may or may not be generalized to other regions, but the research processes, products, and shared experiences may be of value to others who are interested in implementing such alternative instructional approaches in their schools or classrooms. The Sunday workshops were held at San Jose State University in Northern California to provide a base for sustained group activities over time. Participating teachers were encouraged to document their field testing processes and reflections through the three phases.

Participating Teachers

All 38 participating teachers have met at least one of the following selection criteria:
a) ANCCS members with a commitment and support of school administrators;
b) participated in the 1996 CAERDA Conference in San Jose;
c) received awards as exemplary teachers by ANCCS;
d) received awards as experienced teachers (with 10 years teaching experience) by ANCCS; and
e) highly recommended by the individual schools or CAERDA.

A Brief Description of the Intervention Approach

Theme cycle provides teachers with opportunities to help students tie their prior knowledge with new knowledge. For example, the first instructional procedure of "what we knew" allows teachers to analyze students' level of prior knowledge of a chosen topic. The second step of "what we want to know" helps teachers and students generate specific researchable questions to guide subsequent group-based inquiry. Theme cycle differs from thematic units in some important ways. For example, theme cycle applies the knowledge of subjects, such as social studies, math, and science when students engage in research activities while thematic units are often designed to teach subject matters or skills. In addition, theme cycle involves students in co-planning as well as co-implementing the instructional activities based on guiding research questions while traditional thematic units are almost preplanned by teachers (Edelsky, Altwerger, & Flores, 1991). The following instructional procedures were provided for teachers in phase I (Chang, 1995; Harste, Short, and Burke, 1988):

1. Before instruction begins, teachers and students make a list of topics that interest them. The basic curriculum plan is formed with mutual agreement. Sometimes, topics students choose include the school curriculum. Through negotiation, one topic is selected as a starting point.
2. As a class, a thematic or concept map is developed by identifying: (a) "What We Know"; and (b) "What We Want to Know" about the topic.
3. Through a joint effort, students and teachers develop possible resources to answer questions in "What We Want to Know". These resources include books, places to visit, people to interview, ways to solve problems, tools to use, and so on. Each person is responsible for a section or part of a section of the project.
4. Students choose the questions in "What We Want to Know" section that they are most interested in. With the help of the teacher, students begin to explore the questions using various formats, such as large group, small group, pairs, and individual activities. Here, students have the opportunity to practice their language use in a low anxiety environment. Students help each other with the teacher being the facilitator.
5. As they investigate a particular topic, new questions are added to their original questions.
6. At the end, students present the results to each other in various formats, including oral, written, book review, picture, role play, and so on.
7. Finally, the teacher and students work together again to discuss "What We Have Learned" and "What We Want to Know Next" for future studies.

By following the above listed procedures, the learning and teaching associated with theme cycles represent a negotiated effort on the part of the teacher and the students. Throughout the process, building a supportive classroom environment is critical, and the teacher acts as a facilitator. The intent is to motivate students to pursue what they want to learn and become active participants in the learning process.

Briefly, Gardner's (1993) theory of multiple intelligences argues that human intelligences are beyond what traditionally measured linguistic and logical-mathematical intelligences to also include musical, bodily-kinesthetic, spatial, and personal intelligences. Within the domains of personal intelligences, we can further identify interpersonal and personal intelligences. The applications of this theory within this project were largely guided by Armstrong's (1994) work for classroom applications. The introduction and implementation of the multiple intelligences were intended to achieve the following goals: (1) utilizing activities that enhance teachers' multiple intelligences through sustained professional development activities; (2) broadening teachers' perspective on human learning in order to enrich the contents and activities within their classroom instruction; and (3) generating pathways to design alternative assessment strategies to yield coherent Chinese language teaching and learning experiences for both teachers and students.

Instrumentation, Data Collection and Data Analysis

Two types of data were collected. Type I data were descriptive in nature. Instruments used in collecting type I data include: (a) in-class questionnaires; (b) take-home questionnaires; (c) ongoing quick-write activities; (d) informal individual or group interviews, and (e) classroom observations. The majority of the questions required short responses and responding to statements using a Likert Scale. A form was used to collect teachers' opinions on the feasibility of theme cycle and multiple intelligences all through the three research phases as they became more familiar with these two instructional approaches. When questionnaires were used, they were collected either at the end of the class or were returned by mail. A qualitative data analysis procedure was used to categorize teachers' responses through cut-out strips, and each data set was verified by two researchers.

Type II data include lesson plans, instructional materials, observations, student work samples, and teachers' presentation, handouts, and poster boards exhibited at the Annual Chinese Teachers Conference on August 9, 1997 at the Clark Kerr Campus at UC Berkeley (ANCCS, 1997). A uniform format for lesson plans that utilized theme cycle in different grade levels was generalized over time, each with a sequential step to highlight the nature of the thematic cycle. The analysis of lesson plans produced by different teachers could then be compared with the group-generated standard format. Student work samples generated through theme cycle lessons were also collected to reflect the effect of such a teach-learning activities over time.

Results and Discussion

Results of the project are organized in response to specific research questions. The first research question is on changes in beliefs among teachers participating in this project regarding Chinese language instruction and curriculum material development for Chinese language arts. Two sets of data sources were used to address this research question. The first set was obtained at the end of the first full-day workshop after the participants were introduced to the concepts and a brief outline of activities regarding theme cycle and multiple intelligences. The second set was obtained at the end of the last full-day workshop with a focus on comparing the responses obtained between those who have and have not made presentation in their own school. For this paper, the focus of our analysis was only on the implementation of theme cycle as an alternative instructional approach in their classroom.

After the first all day workshop session on theme cycle, teachers were asked to give feedback on the feasibility of implementing theme cycle in Chinese language classroom. Twenty-two out of the 38 teachers (or 58%) turned in their quick-write (See Table 1). This summary of the feasibility of the theme cycle approach perceived by participating teachers served as a baseline information for the project. In general, many teachers liked the open-endedness of a teach-learning approach when it was demonstrated to them as their own learning activities. However, their initial concerns about implementing such a method in their own classrooms were understandable because many of them had neither training nor experience in applying such a non-traditional teaching method. Theme cycle is very different from a traditional teacher-centered approach typically taught all through their own formal schooling. However, as revealed in their responses, there were teachers who felt comfortable learning about such an alternative approach. Again, this might be attributed to the unique qualifications of the pool of participating teachers. Without knowing the theory or terminology, many of them have applied, on their own, some parts of the activities that are integral parts of lessons guided by the principles of theme cycle or multiple intelligences.

In order to assess the readiness of the group to engage in peer coaching activities, on the last day of the workshop on June 8, 1997 in Phase III, teachers were asked whether they had demonstrated their theme cycle lessons/units in their schools, and if they felt confident to demonstrate lessons in the future. Twenty-eight teachers attended the last session, and twenty-three of them 28 (or 82%) returned their questionnaires. Thirteen teachers among the 23 (or 57%) indicated that they had demonstrated their theme cycle lessons and the other 10 teachers (or 43%) had not done so.

Teachers were also asked to share and compare what thought about curriculum material development and Chinese language instruction before and after these long term professional development activities. Among the 13 teachers who demonstrated the theme cycle approach in their schools, seven out of the 13 teachers felt confident in offering peer coaching activities next school year (See Tables 2 and 3). Tables 4 and 5 present the comparisons of responses obtained from the ten teachers who had not demonstrated the theme cycle approach to their peers at their own schools. Among them, six teachers indicated that they are interested in doing future demonstrations or peer coaching activities.

Tables 2, 3, 4, and 5 may reflect the change process of teachers' responses regarding curriculum material development and Chinese language instruction before and after their participation in these long term professional development activities. It appears that teachers had become more student-centered in learning and teaching activities. In spite of the fact that some teachers indicated that they are not ready for peer coaching activities as intended for this project, their ideas about teaching and learning changed as a result of the professional development activities. Their beliefs about curriculum material development and Chinese language instruction shifted away from a predominantly teacher-directed, fact-oriented approach to a more student-centered and process-oriented direction. For these teachers, teaching no longer means recitation and repetition of writing characters and sentences. These long term professional activities have transformed many teachers into facilitators who help students acquire Chinese language within meaningful social contexts.

The second research question addresses similarities and differences as observed on lesson plans and instructional packets, utilizing theme cycle, across K-12 grade levels. The second set of data sources was used to address this question. A group of six teacher-presenters was selected by their peers to present the lesson plans, student work samples, and teaching-learning activities implemented within the primary, intermediate, and secondary classrooms at the Annual Chinese Language Teachers' Conference on August 9, 1997 (ANCCS, 1997) (see Table 6).

A Closing Note

The high qualification of the participating teachers, the guiding theoretical frameworks, and the sustained long term professional development activities seem to be the primary factors contributing to the positive results of this project. Wong's (1991) statements certainly highlight the essence of thematic cycle as teaching-learning activity; that is, the art of teaching is the art of discovery. We can teach a lesson for a day but if we teach curiosity, we teach for a life time. The mediocre teacher tells, the good one explains, the superior one shows, the great one inspires. Many of our participating teachers have inspired not only their own students, but also their peers within or beyond this learning community.

In sum, based on the preliminary findings of this on-going project, even though there were differences observed among lesson plans across grade levels, we learned that it is feasible to engage the largely community-based K - 12 Chinese language teachers in implementing process-oriented and student-centered theme cycle lessons through sustained professional development activities. It is also critical to (1) help teachers establish a community of learners in order to provide them with ongoing support in facilitating the transformation of teacher beliefs and changes over time, and (2) actively involve participating teachers in generating goals and objectives for each phases of the project. There are varying degrees of readiness among participating teachers. Therefore, it is important to provide room and space to address the individual differences within a mutually supportive context. The next step will be involving site administrators and parents in the subsequent professional development activities.

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Table 1: Summary of Teachers' Initial Perceptions regarding the Implementation of Theme Cycle in Their Classroom (n=22)

Feasible	Not Feasible
For Students . good for students who attend public schools who already know similar instructional methodologies . Empower students since they participate in decision making For Teachers . a learning process . narrow the distance between the teacher and students On Instructional Strategies . non-traditional, different ways of teaching and learning . bridge between prior knowledge to new information . active learning . more materials . creative and interesting	For Students . more work for students, involvement of shy students in particular . improper questions from students For teachers . lack of support from administrators, teachers, and parents who are very used to the traditional way of teaching and learning . lack of time and resources . assessment difficulty . classroom atmosphere - lack of control . inadequate use of textbooks

Table 2: Comparison of Responses among Teachers **who Have Demonstrated** Theme Cycle Lessons in Their Classrooms Regarding Curriculum Material Development (n=13)

	Before Professional Development	After Professional Development
Ready for demonstr-ation (n=7)	Within Textbooks . depend on textbook, use supplementary material when necessary . traditional pen-pencil homework, boring . do not know how to develop materials Teacher-Centered . teacher as authority . teachers are isolated and close-minded	Beyond Textbooks . develop new and interesting materials . have tried new methods learned, have a better understanding how to do it . various ways Student-Centered . cooperation with students . sharing information with students and colleagues and learn from each other . students participation in choosing what to learn
Not ready for demonstr-ation (n=6)	Within Textbooks . rely heavily on textbook, learn new words and sentence structure . depend on textbook Teacher-Centered . teacher as authority, focus on learning new vocabulary and sentence structure	Beyond Textbooks . more practical and concrete, broad-based, linked learning with real life . more resources for curriculum development, more flexible . various ways to collect materials Student-Centered . students participation in discussion and collecting materials

Table 3: Comparison of Responses among **Teachers who Have Demonstrated** Theme Cycle Lessons in Their Classrooms Regarding Chinese Language Instruction (n=13)

	Before Professional Development	After Professional Development
Ready for demonstr-ation (n=7)	Within Textbooks . text-sentence-phases-character, short stories . dry and boring . teacher spend most of the time lecturing . traditional teaching methods Teacher-Centered . teacher lecturing	Beyond Textbooks . interesting and rigorous . variety of ways in teaching Student-Centered . participation and discussion from teachers and students, cooperation . create vigorous and lively classroom . two way teaching and learning student-centered, teacher as facilitator . student-centered activities, teacher as facilitator
Not ready for demonstr-ation (n=6)	Teacher-Centered . teacher-centered, one way instruction . question and answer . teacher-centered, explaining texts and new vocabulary . traditional, teachers feel very pressured	Beyond Textbooks . flexible . more opportunity to practice Chinese . develop 7 intelligences Student-Centered . student-centered, teacher as facilitator . not as pressured, students are more interested in learning . focus on students' interest

Table 4: Comparison of Responses among Teachers **who Have NOT Demonstrated** Theme Cycle Lessons in Their Classrooms Regarding Curriculum Material Development

n=10	Before Professional Development	After Professional Development
Ready for demonstr-ation (n=6)	Within Textbooks . simple content, textbook . try to make it interesting Teacher-Centered . teacher spends a lot of time on preparation . teacher's responsibility	Beyond Textbooks . rich content . let students tell what they want to learn and try to meet the needs of students who grow up in the U.S. Student-Centered . students participation . responsibility of teachers and students
Not ready for demonstr-ation (n=4)	Within Textbooks . focus on textbook, supplementary material . boring and inflexible	Beyond Textbooks . learned new ways of teaching from other teachers . experienced concept change, from textbook driven to student- centered . still use textbook, theme cycle helps make textbook interesting and flexible

Table 5: Comparison of Responses among Teachers **who Have NOT Demonstrated** Theme Cycle Lessons in Their Classrooms Regarding Chinese Language Instruction

n=10	Before Professional Development	After Professional Development
Ready for demonstr-ation (n=6)	Teacher-Centered . limited methods in teaching . teacher-centered, only one way . teachers feel a sense of failure . traditional	Beyond Textbooks . more systematic, more flexible and rigorous . various methods . open-minded, open format Student-Centered . cooperation of teachers and students, students participation in discussion . student-centered .build up confidence
Not ready for demonstr-ation (n=4)	Within Textbooks . traditional way, very limited . focus on reading and writing Teacher-Centered . teacher develops and designs material	Beyond Textbooks . open forum . focus on integrated language skills . more flexible with new ideas Student-Centered . respect students' ideas, guide students in learning and teaching

Table 6: Similarities and Differences Observed among the Three Groups of Teachers regarding the Implementation of Theme Cycle across K-12 Grade Levels

Observed Similarities across Three Levels of Classrooms	Observed Differences across Three Levels of Classrooms
Procedures . follow the same format: (a. what they knew; b. what they want to know; c. students and teacher design and implement activities together; d. assessment; and e. what they want to learn next. Student-Centered . team work, cooperation between teacher and students . student-centered teaching and learning . students interest level is high Activities . low anxiety environment . various in-class activities as well as homework assignments . various ways of assessment activities . time consuming Textbooks . can use textbook, but beyond textbooks	Primary grades . rely on textbook to a large extent (K-2)* . more related to daily life of students (K-2) . more hands-on (K-2) Intermediate grades . rely on textbook to a certain degree, but incorporated a lot more out-of-class knowledge (3-5)** . more creative (3-5) Secondary . open format, knowledge comes from students, do not rely on textbook as much as the lower grades (6-12)*** . students are more in control (6-12) . use daily-life resources such as newspaper (6-12) * Kindergarten - Second Grades ** Third- Fifth Grades ***Sixth - Twelvesth Grades

A Case Study: Chinese Bilingual Education in the U. S. -- A Comparison Between N. Y. and C. A.

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After the passage of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, Title VII (the Bilingual Education Act) in 1968, especially after the law case of *Lau v. Nichols*, some states have their own laws mandating bilingual/bicultural education. In New York City, however, there is no such mandate but the guidelines for the programs under Part 154 of the Commissioner's Regulations for Pupils with Limited English Proficiency (LEP) (ERIC Document Reproduction Service ED 322 734). In the section on instruction, there are two options. One is transitional bilingual education program. The other is free-standing ESL (Teaching English as a Second Language) program. Full bilingual education is not stressed in the regulations but rather the transitional bilingual program.

The goal of the transitional bilingual education program is proficiency in the English language so that the students can make a prompt transition to learning only in English. The arrangement for *transitional bilingual education* includes: 1) self-contained classes in which students remain in the same classroom for most of the day except during subjects such as art, music and physical education; 2) team teaching, which means that a certified bilingual teacher provides instruction in the native language, while ESL instruction is given by certified ESL teachers, and the students are integrated with the mainstream school population for music, art, and physical education; and 3) Departmentalized classes at intermediate, junior and senior high schools.

Instructional strategies for transitional bilingual education programs include: First, *Alternate language approach.* Instruction offered in each language, alternating language either day by day, or each half-day, or by subject area. Second, *Cognitive academic learning approach.* The instruction is supplemented by ESL method to help students understand and remember important concepts in each different content area. Third, *Cooperative learning approach.* It encourages cooperative and interactive student participation. Fourth, *Natural approach.* This is a language-teaching methodology based on the natural process of the first language acquisition, stressing on the importance of a meaningful context and communicative fluency rather than accuracy in structure or in phonology. Fifth, *Preview-review approach.* It includes a three-step process -- the presentation of the lesson in one language by one teacher, the presentation of the lesson by a second teacher in the second language, and review/ reinforcement of the lesson with each teacher using a different language. Sixth, *Sheltered English approach.* This is an approach based on the research which shows that comprehension varies with the instructional setting. The essential attributes of it are the teacher's use of simplified input, context clue, frequent checks for understanding and appropriately designed lessons. Seventh, *Whole language approach.* This is based on the philosophy that language acquisition is a natural developmental process. Lessons given with this approach should move from the whole to the particular, be learner-centered, promote social interaction, instruction in all four language skills, and reflect the teacher's confidence in the students' abilities.

According to the Regulations, a *free-standing ESL program* means a program including ESL, as well as content area instruction in English supported by ESL methodologies. The organizational patterns for the *free-standing program* include but not limited to an ESL center, where an ESL teacher provides small group instruction daily, teaching a content area using ESL methodologies. The groups are usually homogeneous in age and English language proficiency.

The Regulations require that students after the eighth grade have to pass a competency test. There is a native language writing and competency test available in 29

languages. If the students take a required area test in any of these languages, they must take the test of ESL.

Five Chinese bilingual education projects at New York City are discussed here. These projects are: 1) "Chinese Bilingual Career Awareness Program" (Project "CAP") (1989-90, the fourth year)(OREA, ED 334 809; 1990), 2) Chinese, Career Education, and Computer Education" (Project "Three Cs") (1991-92, the fifth year) (Lynch, 1992), 3) Chinese Bilingual Education Program both at Seward Park High School and at Washington Irving High School (1980-83, a three year program; the second year document reviewed here) (OREA, ED 223 759; 1981), 4) Chinese Opportunities in Career Education (Project "CHOICE") (a five year project, the fourth year of the project reviewed here) (OREA, ED 351 127; 1992), and 5) Pre-engineering Instruction / Science and Mathematics" (Project "PRISM") (the first year of the project reviewed here) (OREA, ED 382 464; 1994).

These five projects were all three to five year programs serving a large numbers of Chinese students with limited English proficiency (LEP) ranging from 279 to 858 in each year of the project at grade 5-9, 7-9, or 9-12, funded under the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (E. S. E. A.) Title VII funding. The selected students scored below 40th percentile on the English version of Language Assessment Battery (LAB). The services were: 1) ESL, 2) NLA (Native Language Arts, which is Chinese), 3) content areas (e.g. Math, Science, Social Studies, Health Science, and Home Economics taught with ESL methodologies, 4) computer course, and 5) non-academic activities (e.g. curriculum material development, staff training, personal counseling, and parental involvement).

The way of offering ESL or NLA varied from one period a day to four periods a day at five levels: literacy, beginning, intermediate, advanced, and transitional. The amount of providing ESL was more than that of NLA. But no accurate quantitative data was available in the reports. Teaching content areas with ESL methodologies means that the ESL teachers worked closely with the content area teachers and carried over instruction in ESL to the content areas.

Based on the average gain on the test LAB ranging from 4.6 to 6.3, all the projects reported that the students made significant improvement in learning English. Most of the projects, however, had no specific evidence for improvement in learning NLA, but one project reported that all the students had 65 or better passing grade by the end of the training. The criteria for successful performance in the other content areas was a passing grade of 65 or better. As reported, 89% to 94% of the trained students obtained the passing grade in different content areas. In addition, both high graduation rate and large percentage of graduates going to college among the trained Chinese students were also reported as part of the evidence about the projects' successful training.

Chinese Bilingual Education in California

Not like at New York City where there were both independent Chinese bilingual education programs as reviewed previously and quite a few multi-lingual education programs including services for the Chinese (e.g. Project "BEACON," OREA, ED 336 483, 1990; Project "Hi-CLASS," OREA, ED 367 100; Project "SUCCESS," OREA, ED 357 129, 1992; Project "E.T.," OREA, ED 360 846, 1992; and Project "Go-for-it," OREA, ED 334 799, 1990), the Chinese bilingual education in California was different from that in New York, which was more usually included in large-scaled multi-lingual education programs rather than Chinese bilingual education only, unless the schools were located at Chinatown and had a large numbers of Chinese students. Thus, the reports about Chinese bilingual education in California were from two sources. One was the case studies conducted by researchers with deeper insights and more detailed observations from the schools located at Chinatown of San Francisco. The other was the evaluation report on the multi-lingual education projects conducted widely in California.

Three case studies about Chinese bilingual education programs implemented at elementary schools of Chinatown, San Francisco are reviewed here. The methods of these

case studies were interview and observation or participant observation. First case was the study done by L. F. Guthrie (1981). Thirty 5th graders among 242 Chinese students served with bilingual education programs were selected for observation. The second case was Lum's study (1981), which was the observation in another fifth grade class from a different school but the same school district. The third case study was reported by G. P. Guthrie (1985), which compared a six grade class to a fifth grade class from a Chinatown elementary school where Chinese bilingual programs were provided. Rather than reporting students' school achievement test scores, these three case studies provided more information about the school history, the staff, and the community, as well as instructional arrangement at bilingual settings. The discussion about transitional or maintenance bilingual education was the important information about implementing Chinese bilingual education. The interviews revealed that both teachers and patents had more interest in the maintenance model (balancing instruction and learning in both English and native language). The daily academic work in these bilingual education programs included English, Chinese, Social Studies and Math, two periods for English, and one period for Chinese, Math and Social Studies respectively. The instruction was delivered by either bilingual teachers or monolingual English teachers with the assistance of Chinese speaking aides. Golden Mountain Reading Series was the textbook for learning Chinese. The time allocation tables show that instruction in English varied from 1/2 of a period to 2/3 of a period, and in Chinese was 2/3 of a period or less except the course of Chinese Language Arts which was dominated by the instruction in Chinese.

Four multi-lingual education programs (including services for the Chinese students with limited English proficiency) are reviewed here. The first one was the Project "Bridging the Gap: A Sheltered Approach to Language Acquisition and Academic Success" (Kester, 1991). This was a Chinese, Japanese, and Korean Transitional Bilingual Program funded under E.S.E.A. Title VII in Torrance, California. The curriculum areas were ESL, Social Studies, and Science. It was reported that the students experienced satisfactory academic progress. A large number of the students were trained, but there was no information on the accurate numbers of the included students, especially Chinese students. Nor was reported about the criteria used in the posttesting for each area.

The second one was the Project of Multi-lingual Vocational Dental Assistant Training at Los Angeles, California, funded by the University of California (California University, 1980). The curriculum was designed with the guidelines of the American Dental Association, including ESL, language skills, interpersonal skills, and those related to the dental practice. It was reported that the employment rate ranged from 67% to 88% as the result of the training. A large numbers of the students were trained, but still there was no information on the accurate numbers of the included students, especially Chinese students. Nor was reported about the criteria used in the posttesting for each area.

The third one was "Multilingual Preschool Parent Participation Projects" (Fox, 1986), taking place in the Sacramento City Unified School District, Sacramento, California, federally funded (Title VII). The fourth one was the project "A Model of Parent Education /Training for Asian Populations" ("PET Project) (Chan, 1985), funded by Development Fund Grant Award from the California Development of Developmental Services. These two projects had more activities with bilingual parents. One was with the preschool students' parents in the Sacramento City Unified School District, and the other was with the disabled children's parents at San Francisco and East Bay Areas. As reported, the majority of parents' impression on the programs was positive.

Summary and Discussion

In terms of similarities, firstly, these two states are the places where the highest concentration of *Chinese population* is located. Secondly, the programs in both states were funded federally (i.e. *Title VII funding*), although some of the programs in California were funded by local resources. Thirdly, in the Chinatowns of both cities, many LEP or NEP

Chinese students (i.e. *target group*) at different grade level and age level were served with bilingual education programs. These students have benefited greatly from these services provided. Fourth, the programs in both states had *parental* involvement. Fifth, the bilingual *instructional materials* were developed and used in the programs of both states.

In terms of differences between the two places, first of all, California has a longer *history* of Chinese immigration and Chinese bilingual education compared to New York City. Next, there were more "*maintenance*" Chinese bilingual programs involved with less numbers of students in California than those in New York. There were more "*transitional*" Chinese bilingual programs involved with much larger numbers of Chinese students in New York than in California.

Additionally, although both places possess *documentation* on Chinese bilingual education, the documents in California are more specific concerning the balance of instructional languages used in different subjects, and the historical and political impact on those programs. The documentation in New York City is more specific about the regulations, instructional approaches, and achievements of transitional programs in terms of test scores and subject areas' passing grades.

Moreover, Chinese bilingual programs in California were seemly *single-goal oriented*. For example, the programs at Chinatown elementary schools mostly focused on LEP or NEP Chinese students' academic achievements and language improvement. The Multilingual Preschool Parent Participation Project very much focused on the parental involvement. However, most of the programs at New York City seemed more *multi-goal oriented*, with focus not only on the career awareness and vocational education, but also on many other things such as staff development, instructional materials, parental involvement, or language improvement.

Finally, more case studies for the Chinese bilingual education programs in California were done enthnographically by the researchers. The Chinese bilingual education programs in New York were mostly evaluated on the program effectiveness through providing quantitative data such as test scores by the same evaluator -- OREA (Office of Research, Evaluation and Assessment).

In conclusion, this review has demonstrated that Chinese bilingual education programs have been progressively developed in both New York and California, and many Chinese bilingual students in these two places have greatly benefited from the bilingual education. This case of comparison has supported that education can not be more successfully implemented unless the culture differences and the language issues are considered and solved through effective instructional approaches, for example, bilingual programs, according to the different rationale, purposes, and needs.

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A Case Study of Chinese Literacy Development: Home-School Together for learning Chinese as a Second Language

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Abstract

The present study investigates the effective strategies developed for home and school working together to help one American-born Chinese student learn Mandarin Chinese as a second language (CSL). This study was conducted at a Chinese school in the Texas Gulf Coast area. The subject was a level-2 CSL learner. Data were collected during a 4-week period. The researcher interviewed the subject and his parents. Furthermore, the parent journal, tutor's journal, and observation of family literacy environment were also used for data collection. The findings of the present study illustrate the importance and necessity of home-school CSL literacy programs designed to instruct parents to participate in their children's second language learning. In addition, experts' modeling, repeated practice, learning through multiple ways, links between native language and target language, and interconnections of reading, writing, speaking, and listening are effective strategies to facilitate CSL literacy development.

Introduction

The home is the child's first school. As well, the parent is the child's first teacher. Parents and children can learn and read together. The family literacy environment provides the scaffolding stimulation for literacy growth. However, the school provides the child more formal language instruction than the family does. Home and school working together enhances the efforts of developing children's literacy. As Moon and Wells's (1979) study, "It could be said that the child's success or failure in learning to read largely depends on parents who care enough for their children to spend time with them, . . ., to lay the foundations about, . . ., books and reading" (p. 61).

Meek (1982) also suggests parents reading to the child for ten minutes, talking with the child about something parents have read, letting the child see parents reading something, and letting the child listen to books on tapes or records. All these stimuli arouse children's interest in reading and see book reading as a necessary part in daily life.

Therefore, learning language in both the classroom and the language learning atmosphere outside of class, children will demonstrate much better language expression than learning only in the classroom or only in the home. As Epstein (1990) notes, "Increasingly, schools are changing their laissez-faire practices concerning the family by designing and conducting programs to help more families become 'knowledgeable partners' in their children's education" (p. 99).

Nevertheless, parents often wonder if they are doing the right things for children's literacy development; many of them desire more information about the field. Good home-school literacy programs can help parents foster their children's literacy development in partnership with the school. Becher (1985) reports that, "informational and training programs designed to instruct parents about the teaching of reading and to encourage their active participation have resulted in significant increases in the reading attitudes and achievement of their children" (p. 49).

Besides home-school literacy programs, for second language educators, Au (1993) suggests that children should first learn to read in their native language before being asked to learn to read in a second language they do not know well. Quintero and Huerta-Macias (1990) also advises that "Code-switching allows students to express their thoughts and ideas in a natural and precise way in their own voices . . . . It gives value to their past

linguistic development. The development of biliteracy among bilingual children is supported in the literature" (p. 308).

In addition to Mandarin Chinese, there are still many other Chinese dialects, such as Taiwanese, Cantonese, Shantonese, Shanghaiese, etc. Although those dialects' pronunciations are distinct from each other, their written Chinese are the same. Everson (1994) mentions that one of the major difficulties with Chinese orthography as viewed by the Western learner is that the script does not readily indicate the pronunciation of the character. Unlike languages employing alphabets or syllabaries, which have more regular and predictable sound-to-symbol correspondence between the spoken language and the script that represents it, Chinese provides few systematic clues in the printed character that indicate how it is pronounced.

According to Cheng's (1993) study at Bei Wen Primary School, Chia-yii City, Taiwan, R.O.C., Chinese pupils start writing using 37 sound symbols, then they move to character writing stage. There are one, two, or three sound symbols for each Chinese character. By combining the sound symbols, one can pronounce a character. Writing in the first grade classroom serves three purposes: improving the ability to identify and blend the sound symbols, developing a proper handwriting, and making sounding out and identifying characters automatically.

In the United States, there are many immigrants from Mainland China, Taiwan, and Hong Kong. As well, there are a great many of Chinese language schools all over the United States. Those first-generation immigrants expect their descendant to learn about homeland's culture and language, and they send children to Chinese language schools thus. Most of these schools teach students to read, write, and speak Mandarin Chinese as a second language (CSL).

The instruction of teaching Chinese American children CSL is different from the one of teaching Chinese in Mainland China, Taiwan, or Hong Kong, in that the predominant language those ABC (American-born Chinese) use is English. Compared with native language learning, the families of those ABC should take more responsibility and participation in their children's learning CSL. However, instead of rote drill work to learn handwriting and the identification of blending sounds and characters, the present study investigates the effective strategies developed for home and school working together to help one native-English-speaking ABC learn formal Chinese language. In this study, the term Chinese refers to Mandarin Chinese.

Method

Synopsis of the Chinese Class

The present study was conducted at a Chinese language school in the Texas Gulf Coast area. The school hours were every Sunday 3:00 to 5:00 p.m. during the academic year.

Children in the school were divided into seven class levels according to the students' proficiency in Chinese literacy. Each level took an academic year and had its corresponding textbooks. Such series of textbooks were edited in order to facilitate overseas Chinese descendant to appreciate Chinese culture, and encourage overseas Chinese descendant to listen/speak/read/write Chinese practically. Students studied two volumes of textbooks per year. Those Chinese-English-edition textbooks and workbooks were published by Overseas Chinese Affairs Commission.

The Chinese class involved in the present study was on level 2. From September through December of the academic year, children learned volume-3 textbook. From January through May of the same academic year, they learned volume-4 textbook. Both volume 3 and volume 4 were taught for the children who were possessed of the abilities of listened and spoken Chinese but very limited read and written Chinese.

Researcher Role

In the present study, the researcher was the teacher who taught Chinese language and fully participated in the class activities.

Subject

Chad, the subject for the present study, was 10 years old. He was a fourth grader of an elementary school in Clear Creek Independent School District. His parents come from Hong Kong. He is an ethnic Chinese born in the United States, and speaks both English and Cantonese fluently.

Chad's mother speaks fluent English, Mandarin Chinese, and Cantonese. She attended the class regularly. His older brother also learned Chinese literacy in the class. As Chad did not understand the class discussion, his mother translated in English or Cantonese for him. He was usually conscientious about completing homework. His pronunciation was clear, and he wrote distinctly. His attitude toward Chinese language learning was positive, and he liked to participate in class activities.

Instruments

The teacher designed open-ended interviewed questions for students and parents. In addition, both the parent and teacher kept the journal once per week.

1. Interviewed questions for parents:
   - How much Mandarin Chinese is spoken in your (the parent's) home?
   - How often does your child practice the class work?
   - How do you reinforce Chinese lessons in reading, writing, and speaking?
   - What materials do you have at home that reinforce Chinese literacy development?
   - Why does your child learn Chinese?

2. Interviewed questions for students:
   - How do you (the student) see yourself as a speaker of Chinese?
   - How do you see yourself as a reader of Chinese?
   - How do you see yourself as a writer of Chinese?
   - What is hard about Chinese?
   - What is easy about Chinese?
   - How does writing help you be a better reader?
   - How does reading help you be a better writer?

The Burke Reading and Writing Inventories (Burke, 1980), as following questions, were also used to gather baseline information about the student:

- When you are reading and you come to something you do not know, what do you do?
- Who is a good reader that you know?
- What makes him/her a good reader?
- Do you think that he/she ever comes to something he/she does not know when he/she reads?
- (Continued from previous question, if "Yes") When he/she does come to something he/she does not know, what do you think he/she does about it?

3. Parent journal for Chinese literacy learning: The form of parent journal included class date, a description of the child's work in class, a description of the child's literacy work at home, a description of the parent's literacy reinforcement at home, and the parent's comments or reflections about how the child applied literacy growth in Mandarin Chinese in the home and Chinese school.

4. Tutor's journal for Chinese literacy learning: The form of tutor's journal included what the student did, what the teacher did in response, and finally the teacher's thinking about what was done would be recalled later.

Procedure

Data were collected during a 4-week period. The teacher visited Chad's house, and interviewed his parents and him. Furthermore, the observation of family literacy environment were conducted based on following criteria:

(a) Are there Chinese TV programs, video tapes, newspapers, prints, storybooks, pictures, or other literacy materials at home that might help the student's literacy study?

(b) Did the family go to Chinatown to buy Chinese prints to help the child learn more Chinese in the home?

(c) Does anyone else in the family read/write Chinese?

(d) Who are other Chinese speakers in the family?

In addition, Chad's mother served as a voluntary teaching assistant in class, and kept the journal about the activities that encouraged Chad to read/write/speak Mandarin Chinese at home, the growth of Chad's Chinese literacy learning, and the parent-child Chinese language interaction.

The teacher kept tutor's journal as well. The journal was a collection of field notes which recorded Chad's learning behavior and the teacher's comments.

Data Analysis

The data collected during the literacy learning process were triangulated with the child and parent literacy interviewed data to form a grounded theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) of the strategies the particular Chinese literacy learner used to become literate in Chinese.

Results

Oral Language Practice

From the interview, the teacher learned that the predominant type of oral language used in the home is English. The parents reported that they speak both Cantonese and English at home. Extended conversations as well as instructions, however, were alternately held in both languages. From the teacher's observation, the only time that the mother spoke to Chad in Mandarin was in connection with the structured lessons that came from Chinese school. She pronounced the characters as the teacher had done in class, and she noted in her journal that she read with Chad:

> I read the story to Chad, and he read the story to me. We also read the story together. During the oral reading, I praised his strong points and corrected his wrong pronunciation. I encouraged him to rate my oral reading and show me what was good and what should be improved.

Another way that Chad communicated in oral language as mentioned by the mother's interview was the role playing between his brother and him. Generally, this oral presentation was from a memorized text that they had learned in Chinese class.

English is Chad and his brother's native language. They studied Chinese together just for Chinese homework. They discussed Chinese homework in English and wrote in Chinese, even though their mother often encouraged them to converse in Chinese. Talking with others in their native language made them feel more comfortable than talking in the second language.

One additional way the mother helped Chad practice oral Chinese was through flash cards. She made the cards to help Chad review Chinese language the same as the teacher did in class. The teacher observed the mother making facial gestures and body language to

strengthen Chad's understanding about the cards characters. Furthermore, she was observed asking Chad to make a sentence with each card character.

In the classroom, when Chad learned new characters, he pronounced them over and over and mastered oral reading. However, he frequently failed to pronounce the right tone for five Mandarin Chinese tones (see Appendix A). The teacher demonstrated to Chad the accurate pronunciation and reminded him to distinguish his oral reading from the teacher's oral reading. The teacher also had each student take a tape recorder to class. When Chad practiced oral reading, he recorded what he read and what the teacher demonstrated. As a result, he could listen to the tape recorder repeatedly and correct his inaccurate pronunciation at home.

From the interview with Chad, the teacher recognized that Chad saw himself as a fluent speaker in English and saw himself as a poor speaker in Mandarin Chinese. That someone else read with him and read something which he was interested in indeed helped him learn English. Going to Chinese school every Sunday afternoon was the strategy to help him learn Mandarin Chinese. Finding the meaning of the characters and trying to use them properly in daily life also stimulated him to promote his oral Chinese ability.

Written Language Practice

The mother reported that about four hours a week were spent on practicing Chinese homework. In order to make the practice more fun, she made up games for written Chinese characters. Such ideas were from the teacher's suggestion. Instead of writing Chinese characters over and over again, Chad was much more motivated to get involved in language activities through games. Chad and his older brother practiced writing as they played tick-tack-toe, crossword puzzle (see Appendix B), telegram sending, board game, and word bingo, etc.

The family subscribed to a Chinese newspaper. There is a special section for children in the newspaper every Sunday. Reading the selections written by other overseas Chinese children helped Chad recognize more about Chinese culture and learn how Chinese writing works. Actually, Chad was not able to read aloud all the characters in the articles. However, sound symbols beside the characters solved his problem of reading aloud. Guessing the unknown characters from surrounding known characters in a sentence or an article also helped him learn new characters and expressions.

The parent's journal was also noted how Chinese and English helped each other. To enable Chad to write, the mother helped him get an idea ready to write by having him say in English what he would write. Then, she had him translate into Chinese.

It was noted many times that Chad preferred speaking and reading Chinese to writing it, because the writing was so tedious for him. In reading he was able to recognize symbols automatically long before they became automatic in his writing. The precision for writing the characters took much longer to develop.

Journal writing with drawing was used in class. Chad responded to the story/text he read by writing and drawing what he liked in Chinese. By reviewing his journal the teacher understood what had impressed and interested Chad. Both Chinese and English were written in the teacher's written responses, depending on the characters Chad had learned or not learned.

In the Chinese classroom, Chad saw himself as a poor reader and writer. He only understood a few characters in a book or an article, and wrote a few simple sentences only. He did not recognize enough characters to understand what he read. Chad found nothing is easy about Chinese language. Writing helped him be a better reader because it helped him memorize Chinese characters. Reading also helped him be a better writer in that he learned how other writers use characters in writing. In order to be a better Chinese reader, Chad would like to know more characters so that he could understand what he reads. When he read and came to something he did not know, he asked his mother. He thought that his parents are good readers in Chinese because they know a lot of characters and could tell him the meaning of the characters. Chad also thought that if his parents ever came to

something they did not understand when they read, he supposed they would look it up in a dictionary or ask someone to resolve the problem.

Chad was excited to receive postcards, Christmas cards, and Chinese New Year cards from friends living in Hong Kong. Besides cute cartoon pictures, he tried to guess the Chinese characters printed on those cards and written by friends. He felt confident when he attacked the characters and decoded them successfully. His mother told the child Chinese Lunar New Year stories that she had been told or had experienced when she was a little girl living in Hong Kong. The parents thought it is important to have their children learn about homeland's culture through language and stories.

In the home, the teacher found several examples of Chinese labels and artifacts, such as labels on food cans/boxes and wrapping paper. The family could buy Chinese wheat gluten, tea, dumplings, rice, rice noodles, cooking wine, soy sauce, and many other flavorings from Chinese supermarkets. The supermarket wrapping paper and store plastic bags were labeled in both Chinese and English. All of the materials reinforced Chad's Chinese language learning outside the Chinese classroom. The food labels and artifacts as well as the newspaper articles were authentic texts, so Chad saw that Mandarin Chinese is used to truly communicate ideas.

Discussion

The findings of the present study shows that language learning takes place not only in the school but also in the home. The subject's home environment has a positive effect on his second language development. In the home, parents' literacy and interest in reading and writing exert a subtle influence on the child's interest in language. The parents enjoy reading, and spend time sharing literacy experience with the child. The child emulates parents and acquires knowledge and pleasure from Chinese literacy activities. This finding is similar to Meek (1982) and Moon and Wells's (1979) studies.

Home literacy environment is a significant force providing the scaffolding stimulation for literacy growth. Parents' supports, rich Chinese prints (newspapers, storybooks, picture books, greeting cards, etc.), fun parent-child language activities, reading with children, etc. are powerful Chinese language stimulation outside the school. Parents do not have to arrange detailed and inflexible plans for children's reading. Children have the right to read what they like. But, purposeful reading makes children engage in the information from the books. It shows the children what they need to learn and how to think about what they learn.

During this 4 weeks of the present study, the parents adopted the teacher's suggestion and the strategies used in class to help the child's CSL learning. Such findings illustrate the importance and necessity of home-school literacy programs designed to instruct parents to participate in their children's education. Epstein (1990) and Becher (1985) have very similar results to this point.

The CSL learner's native language strengthens his learning in the target language. He could not catch the Chinese instruction and would get lost in the class as the teacher instruct him all in Mandarin dialect. Au (1993) and Quintero and Huerta-Macias (1990) agree with the findings. Links between the native language (English) and target language (Chinese) strengthen children's learning. The child's native language helps him recognize Chinese more easily. English builds his confidence in learning Mandarin Chinese. Code-switching enhances his growth of second language literacy.

The results of the present study also indicate that connecting reading and writing for the CSL learner is an useful strategy to improve his second language literacy. Neat handwriting is not the only reason for writing. Writing is a tool to convey children's thinking about their reading. Based upon the findings, it is absolutely insufficient for writing's three purposes, as Cheng's (1993) investigation in Taiwan, in the first grade classroom.

Although isolated mechanical drill is not encouraged in the classroom, repeated practice is still important for the child to internalize language learning before he recognizes symbols automatically. Repeatedly reading increases his ability to read fluently and to understand the reading's meaning. When the child is good at reading a selection, the teacher and parents stop the repeated practice. Repeatedly writing Chinese characters helps the child master the complex-stroke-order Chinese characters. However, the child does not have to spend time repeatedly practicing Chinese exercises until he has mastered those.

Stiff lectures and invariable learning activities could not satisfy the child in developing Chinese literacy. He learned Chinese language by practicing in multiple ways using listening, speaking, reading and writing. The use of multicontexts helps to avoid rote memory on the part of the learner. Games and role playing are useful tools for reinforcing learning which release the learner from anxiety as he attacks a new CSL curriculum.

Experts' (teachers, parents, or peers) demonstrations are also critical for the child to speak, read and write Chinese. The child observed his teacher and mother demonstrating Chinese pronunciation and writing, and then he practiced by following the demonstrations. Such findings is similar to Cheng's (1993) study, as previously mentioned, for students who fail to read or write characters correctly, the teacher may provide immediate modeling.

Limitation of the Study

Limited teaching hours of this 4-week study bound the data collection and the result analysis.

Implications of the Study

Through the description of this study, the CSL teacher becomes more sensitive to learning development and needs, and approves the importance of classroom practice and home instruction which can be linked together. The parents also recognize that home environment can strongly support CSL curriculum and instruction.

Language learning is not just from the textbook itself. Children can develop literacy anytime and anywhere, and everything can be the language learning material. The external factors, including both the school and home, are equally important to the curriculum for the success or failure of literacy development. If educators neglect the external factors, the learning achievement just covers the textbook and the senseless vocabulary. The learners do not really internalize the literature. Based upon the findings of the present study, parents, Chinese language teachers, and people who are concerned about CSL teaching/learning will be able to help Chinese American descendant learn homeland's language more effectively. After all, providing children joyful literacy settings and stimulating children to be fond of motherland's culture and language are most Chinese parents' expectation!

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Appendix A: Sound Symbols & Tones in Mandarin Chinese

Chinese phonemes (sound symbols)						Approximate sounds						five tones	
ㄓ	ㄔ	ㄐ	ㄍ	ㄉ	ㄅ	tz̄	tz̆	dʒi	gə	də	bə		e.g.
ㄘ	ㄑ	ㄑ	ㄎ	ㄊ	ㄆ	ts̄	ts̆	tʃi	kə	tə	pə	1.	ㄉ
ㄙ	ㄕ	ㄒ	ㄏ	ㄋ	ㄇ	s̄	s̆	si	hə	nə	mə	2. ˊ	ㄉˊ
	ㄖ			ㄌ	ㄈ		ʒ̆			lə	fə	3. ˇ	ㄉˇ
	ㄦ	ㄢ	ㄞ	ㄚ	ㄧ		ɾ̆	an	aɪ	a	i	4. ˋ	ㄉˋ
		ㄣ	ㄟ	ㄛ	ㄨ			ən	e	əʰ	uʰ	5. ·	ㄉ·
		ㄤ	ㄠ	ㄜ	ㄩ			aŋ	aʊ	əʰʰ	yʰ		
		ㄥ	ㄡ	ㄝ				əŋ	o	ɛ			

Notes:

1. "ㄨ" pronounced with tongue tip slightly curled, such as "ts̆".
2. "ㄧ" pronounced with tongue tip flat, such as "ts̄".
3. + pronounced with lips rounded.
4. ++ center tongue sound.
5. +++ back tongue sound.
6. "ㄧ", "ㄨ", and "ㄩ" are the only three phonemes that can go between two other phonemes, i.e. "$\frac{ㄅ}{ㄧㄢ}$", "$\frac{ㄈ}{ㄨㄥ}$", and "$\frac{ㄐ}{ㄩㄥ}$".
7. The phonemes from "ㄚ" to "ㄥ" are the ending sounds. "ㄦ" is an independent phoneme.
8. The first tone can be put a sign "-", such as "ㄉˉ", or just leave it empty, no sign needed, such as "ㄉ".

(from: Cheng, T. (1993). Learning to read in Chinese first grade classrooms. ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 362 851.)

Appendix B: Crossword Puzzle

Across

1. How are you ?
2. sing half a song
3. get up early every day
4. pat three times
5. fifteen
6. Whose book is this ?
7. play a ball

Down

A. good friends
B. one, two, three, four, five
C. He is a student, too.
D. my father
E. younger sister play first
F. tomorrow will compare again

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SAT II中文語言測驗與生活實用中文教學

(SAT II Chinese Language Test and the Proficiency Oriented Instructional Approach)

許笑濃(Ms. Theresa Hsu Chao)

Abstract

在美國的中文學校有一個常見的現像: 學生的年齡愈大, 愈少使用中文. 換言之, 學生使用中文的能力, 未能隨班級的升高而增進. 因此, 如何達到學以致用的中文教學, 一直是中文學校努力改進的目標.

1994年, 美國大學理事會(College Board)推出SAT--II中文測驗, 其目的是"評鑑學生在現代中國文化的情境中使用中文與人溝通的能力". 測驗內容包括聽力, 語法和閱讀, 其內容則取材於日常生活. 由此可見, 實用化的中文教學是美制學校和中文學校共同的發展趨向.

在這次研討會中, 筆者將專注於實用語言教學的應用以及和SAT--II中文測驗的配合. 大綱分列如下:

(一) 實用語言教學及教材
(二) 華語(國語)課本內容分析
(三) 補充教材的設計
(四) 與SAT--II中文測驗的配合
(五) 綜合討論

The Emergent Need for Forging Cross-Cultural Bonds in Education

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Chinese-Americans have become one of the fastest growing minority groups in America. In spite of their insignificant 0.7 % of the total American population (U.S. Department of Commerce News, 1991), they are among the most successful cultural groups in America. The newly-immigrated Chinese-Americans, compared with the founders of Chinatowns, fare much better in the society. In almost every area of science and technology and even humanities, Chinese-Americans are often found among the top achievers. Chinese-American children are acclaimed by educators as one of the most accomplished cultural groups of the student body. Scholars in education have tried hard to study the variables which contribute to their achievements in hope of finding some "home remedies" for the problems of our public school system. Some of them approach the phenomenon from a historical perspective, believing they could find, from the pieces of historical puzzles such as changes in immigration policies, opportunities, etc., an answer to the question: Why did Chinese-American educational achievement occur at this particular point of time? (Siu, 1992) Others use an "initial advantage" theory to explain Chinese-American students' academic achievements by saying that it is due to the fact that their parents are the best-educated immigrants this country has ever had (Park, 1990). There are other more maverick theories. For instance, Lee's "cultural identity" theory states that Chinese-American students believe that to do well in school is associated with being a Chinese (1983). No matter what theories they follow, almost all these researchers include cultural values and traditions as an irreplaceable important factor.

However, most of the researchers didn't mention specifically how those values and traditions help Chinese-American children do well in school. This thesis is an attempt to analyze the process from a sociological perspective, that is, base our explanation on an analysis of the Chinese traditional social structure in comparison with the mainstream pattern. It is also our wish that Chinese-Americans not only understand how their traditional values function for their academic and professional success in relation to the benefits of American society, but also guard against some traditional value defects which account for the problems of inadequate adaptation to the American society, such as low self-concept, lack of social skills, passive personality in children as well as in adults. The writers attempt to tap into the sociological research done by Francis L. K. Hsu and use his theory to explain some recent research findings in education. We draw heavily on his insights.

Personality and Kinship Relationships

Hsu (1981, p.76) states, "personality is chiefly the result of conditioning by culture...the sum total of the individual's characteristic reactions to the environment." How is Chinese personality first molded by the culture at home and how do they react to the American society outside? How does their reaction deviate from the norm reaction of children from the mainstream society? What are the advantages and disadvantage of their social structure? These are the questions to which the writers try to answer in this thesis.

Hsu (1981) points out that in most Caucasian families, children learn to deal with the world strictly on an individual basis. Their parents encourage their self-reliance almost from birth. They are taught to do things for themselves--to feed themselves, to sleep by themselves in their own bedrooms, to make their own decisions, and follow their own predilections. Their parents are their sole agent of control. On the contrary, Chinese families function under the communal principles.

Even small families with only the parents and the unmarried children, the traditional unequal interpersonal relationships require their children to give their first priority to the family, usually the parents' will and sacrifice their own desires if there is such a need. Therefore, Chinese children learn very early to see the world in terms of a relationship network, in other words, they have little choice in making decisions about themselves.

Because of their progressive belief, most Caucasian parents firmly refuse their children to enter into the real world of adults in early years. They are the only heroes their children worship. No matter what adversity or domestic trouble their lives might be in, they keep their children out of it as best as they can. On the contrary, Chinese children enter the adult world unobtrusively. Their elders share with them everything except things relating to sex. From very early in their lives, they participate in activities of the real-life world, ranging from their parents' business to adults' gatherings, instead of the near-ideal unreal world of the children from the mainstream society. From the very beginning, they see their parents not as heroes, but as ordinary mortals with both virtues and faults. They see their parents' successes as well as setbacks in life. They understand very early that justice does not always prevail. This pattern of involvement and participation is, according to Hsu, adhered to by even third- and fourth-generation Chinese-Americans. Research findings show that Chinese children are, compared with American children, more persuadable (1981).

The Tabula Rasa vs. the Sober Dreamer

This pattern becomes very important when they reach adolescence. As a result of their observation and participation in adults' activities, their dreams are much more practical and down to earth. They are more likely to be conscious of the power exercised by the environment. Ogbu (1983), based on his study, also says that the key to Chinese-American school success is their perception of their status and objectives in the United States. Unlike the Chinese-American adolescents, the children from the mainstream society are led by the self-reliance orientation of the American society to seek sociability from peer group instead of their parents and, as a result, generation gap often cracks the smooth surface of the parent-child affective relationship. Because of their unique social/cultural structure, the Chinese-American adolescents benefit from their family relationships. Its pattern of mutual dependence forms the basis of a mutual psychological security for them. They do not feel as much adolescent loneliness as the children from the mainstream society do. In the mainstream society, for some children, being popular and winning over friendship could become desperate because of their social needs, but for Chinese-American children, adolescent years are usually not as stormy and the generation gap is not as apparent as with Caucasian adolescents.

Susan S. Xue's study (1995) also supports that analysis. Xue interviewed 22 Chinese-American teenagers. To the question "Do you like going to school?" 72.8 % of the subjects answered YES. To the question "Do you like to be popular?" only 22.7 % of the subjects answered YES. To the question "Are you understood by the teachers?" only 18.2 % answered NO. Since most Chinese-American children feel secure in their primary kinship relationships, that structure helps reduce their risk to suffer emotional and psychological turmoil at this important stage of their growth or to be distracted by problems like drug, premature sex, violence, etc.. As Francis L. K. Hsu points out, "In America, the instability of human ties bears the greatest measure of responsibility for juvenile delinquency, racial tension, interpersonal violence, and other problems." (1981, p. 376) That may explain how the different value and traditions lead to different cultural reactions to the environment and why there is such a significant difference in academic performance between Chinese-American and children from the mainstream society.

The Cultural Conflict in the "Generation Gap"

Interestingly, Susan S. Xue's study also investigated the problem of "generation gap"

among Chinese-American teenagers. She observed that the intimate relationship of parents and their children changes to a "generation gap". (1995) The Chines-American adolescents' "generation gap" did bear some resemblance of mainstream "generation gap". For instance, they have stronger feeling of loneliness than children from the mainstream society (Xue, 1995). However, when these data are further analyzed, we realize that their "generation gap" has a cultural dimension. Some obviously different characteristics lead us to believe that their "generation gap" has more to its generic sense. For example, compared with their mainstream counterparts, Chinese-American adolescents, on one hand, have less "peer pressure" even though they feel they need normal friendship; on the other hand, their cultural identity proves to a total confusion. Xue's study reveals some provoking facts. When the subjects who had stayed in the United States for only one year were asked whether they felt or wished to be Chinese or American, Almost all of them answered Chinese. When the subjects who had stayed in this country for more than eight years, all the answers were neither Chinese nor American (Xue, 1995). This type of confusion , the writers believe, reflects the difficulty most Chinese-American children have in distinguishing between cultural identity and value identity.

It seems illogical that the longer you stay in one country, the less you are sure of what you want to be. However, in reality too many examples tell us that Chinese traditional values are deeply knitted into its social structure and makes it difficult to have one without the other. When those teenagers tried to identify with the fundamental values of American society: individualism, independence and self-reliance, they felt that they were fatally caught in the cultural web of Chinese social structure. Xue also points out the cause of the crisis: Chinese-American "parents are not involved in American mainstream society; they do not really understand what is happening in the new world. They do not even know what they should do to cooperate with the school and the community to educate their children." (1995, p. 15)

Chinese-American artist Jade Snow Wong described in her autobiography how she painfully searched for a bridge from her Chinese home to the larger society, looking for an identity that would allowed her to be both Chinese and American. She only found too much unfairness and gender discrimination in the traditional Chinese values. She cried, " I am a person, besides being a female! Don't the Chinese admit that women also have feelings and minds?" (Takaki, 1994) Her American education further widened the gap between herself and Chinese culture. Finally, she simply lived two separate lives: when she visited her parents on weekends, she quietly performed the usual daughterly duties; during the week she again became an individual with ideas and opinions of her own (Takaki, 1994). In conclusion, Chinese-American teenagers' "generation gap" represents a conflict which carries more weight in culture than in age.

If you think Jade Snow Wong is an extreme example, then nothing is more characteristic than what Laurence Yep described in his book Thief of Hearts. Hong Ch'un, a young girl who moved to America with her parents in the 80s, went even so far as to impose her concept of cultural identity on a half-Chinese blond-haired girl Stacy. She thought the fact that Stacy didn't speak Chinese is unacceptable (Yep, 1995).

Cultural Bondage and Personality

Chinese-American children have nestled securely in the kinship network since the day they were born and all the traditional customs work together to enforce the hierarchical social structure. Chinese-Americans are so preoccupied with their cultural duties that consciously or unconsciously, they take it as a package deal. They believe it is not possible to separate their value identity with their cultural identity. The character is a typical product of Chinese culture. Ideologically, Chinese-Americans have never been accepted by the Ching Dynasty or the subsequent Chinese governments as American nationals. They are just Chinese living overseas. Since the time immemorable, the Chinese culture has been reinforcing this type of mentality. To this day, Chinese-Americans still feel the power of its bondage and find it difficult to totally break through their cultural cocoon.

Xue's study also explore the traditional psychodynamic structure of the Chinese personality. She claims that the image of quiet, introverted, modest, and ambiguous personality has been formed by inherent social, political, cultural and psychological tradition of belief control and social control (1994). As a matter of fact, that is a high price Chinese-Americans are paying for the benefits they get from the Chinese tradition. Children from the mainstream society experience fewer irreparable setbacks and knows fewer situations in which they are entirely frustrated by reality than Chinese-American children. Therefore, they are better prepared to challenge the world (Hsu, 1981). When comparing the two social structures, Hsu notes the idealistic nature of the American society and how Chinese-Americans benefit from the fundamental values of the American society:

> This internal pressure for change in America is one of the secrets of the strength of the American way of life. ... the idealism of youth results from the individual-centered way of life almost in spite of the parents. And that youthful idealism, which does not necessarily fade with the years, is the germ of social reform. ... It is those idealists who have challenged the ways of yesterday, often quixotically but always with resolve, whom their more "practical" and "realistic" fellows may thank for many of the benefits the American society enjoys. (Hsu, 1981, pp. 376-377)

As a result of the lack of individual-centered idealism in their culture and the solidity of the kinship network, Chinese-Americans tend to accept life as they find it (Hsu, 1981, p.372). Social conscience becomes weak because it needs enthusiasm and committal resolute for civic reform. Why are Chinese-Americans still unable to speak in one voice like jews and many other ethnic groups? Why are Chinese-Americans unable to transfer their economic and professional strength into political influence? Why are Chinese-Americans involved in the recent campaign fund-raising scandals? Why are Chinese-Americans so conscious of the status quo but don't desire to transcend the larger scheme of things? That may well be the price they pay for their cultural value defects. It sounds ironic to their wisdom which they are so proud of. Unfortunately, that is a fact.

Chinese-Americans need to have the guts to face their weaknesses and develop a profound understanding of the fundamental values of the American society and their individual liabilities to it. Hsu reminds Chinese-Americans to beware of the opportunistic way of conducting themselves in society:

> ...because, being so irretrievably tied to their primary relations, they are prone to think of right or wrong, truth or untruth, justice or injustice, in relative terms. ... Those who are content with things as they are have no urge to establish mechanisms that may assist them in time of crisis. Those who possess a highly liquid concept of right or wrong which is always defined in personal terms see little reasons to combat social injustice (1981, p.400).

This is a task far beyond the scope of professional Chinese-American education. It is a task for the entire cultural group. When you see with amazement that your children stand with great ease and self-composure in front of a large audience, answering bombardment of questions in an academic contest, giving a piano recital, winning a debate, etc., please tell yourself that they have benefitted from the skill of self-expression which American schools foster.

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Tradition Culture and Development Education

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Abstract

The paper explains the influence of environment factors on education, taking the experience of China's ethnic groups and their characteristics as examples and stressing the influence of national traditional cultural factors on education.

Education is a kind of planned activities to ass on the experiences of productive labor and social life and to exert influence on those who receive an education in developing morally, intellectually and physically. The word "education" is usually used to refer to systematic education in school and all the educational activities in the society in general. Education is also the sum total of educational ways which enable "two kind of production" i.e. population production and material production to continue.

In the modern society, in any ethnic group, there are two kinds of educational ways, one is modern formal school education, the other is closely connected with national traditional culture, including natural education of families and social life by way of being imperceptibly influenced by what one constantly sees and hears.

Education is a complicated systematic engineering. The development of education is related with various environment factors. The relations of various environmental factors have a thousand and one links with national traditional culture. They are also the great environment and great background of the formation and development of national traditional culture.

National characteristics formed in the development of every ethnic group is the factor of traditional culture of a certain ethnic group. Up to now, it still has had important influence on every ethnic group. We are going to illustrate this viewpoint in several aspects: (1) The influence of traditional educational thought, (2) Folk song education, and (3) The education of traditional customs.

Education is not only a complicated systematic engineering but also a "generic engineering". The development of education is related to various environmental factors. The most profound factor is the traditional culture because traditional forces is great. The reform and development of education is an arduous task. In the constructive scheme for a country, education is foundation. The development of economy must take the education of science and technology as a guide.

Burnout and Coping among High School Teachers in Taiwan

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In China, teaching profession was traditionally highly respected. Teachers were regarded as one of the five most honored subjects next only to heaven, earth, the emperor, and parents. Being one's teacher for a single day, he or she shall be treated as one's parent throughout one's life. Unfortunately, this is no longer so, and the stress for the teachers has been immensely increased. Teachers are not only responsible for the academic achievement of the young people, they are also expected to guard the physical well-being and to discipline the conducts of the latter. On the other hand, the world outside the classroom is full of interesting and exciting things such as computer games, and it is very difficult for teachers to hold the attention of students to the school subjects in the classroom. In addition, parents today are in general better educated and with higher social status than those two or three decades ago. Instead of respecting school teachers, they tend to give more pressure and challenges to the latter. Putting these together, it is reasonable to expect that Chinese school teachers today are experiencing a great deal of stress. Research suggests that teacher burnout as a result of prolonged and extensive job-related stress can lead to a deterioration in the quality of service, low morale, and job turnover. In the workplace, coping by the individual serves as an adaptational process for handling stressful situations (Folkman & Lazarus, 1985). Effective understanding of the relationships between teachers' coping strategies and experienced burnout can allow educational administrators to develop training programs of more effective coping strategies in the classroom settings.

Two widely used research instruments, the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI; Maslach & Jackson, 1981) and Ways of Coping Checklist (WOCC; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) were selected to measure teacher burnout and coping. The MBI includes 22 items measuring three facets of burnout: Emotional Exhaustion (EE) represents feelings of fatigue that develop as one's energies became drained; Depersonalization (DP) denotes the development of negative and uncaring attitudes towards others; and Personal Accomplishment (PA) denotes feelings of competence and achievement in one's work with people. A high degree of burnout is reflected in high scores on EE and DP, and in low scores on PA (Maslach, 1982). The WOCC defines two general dimensions in coping process: problem-focused and emotional-focused coping. Problem-focused strategies act on the demands of the situation and seek to alter the environment, and these strategies are measured by two of the WOCC subscales: the Confrontive Coping (CONF) scale measures aggressive efforts to alter the situation, and the Planful Problem Solving (PROB) describes deliberate problem-focused efforts to alter the situation. Emotional-focused strategies target reduction of emotional distress in a specific encounter. There are six subscales measuring emotion-focused coping: Distancing (DIST) describes cognitive efforts to detach oneself; Self-Controlling (SELF) describes efforts to regulate one's feelings; Seeking Social Support (SEEK) describes efforts to seek information, tangible, and emotional support; Accept Responsibility (RESP) measures the extent that a person acknowledge his own role in the problem to put things right; Escape-Avoidance (ESCP) describes cognitive and behavioral efforts

to escape or avoid the problem; and Positive Reappraisal (REAP) describes efforts to create positive meaning by focusing on personal growth (Folkman & Lazarus, 1980; 1985).

Maslach and Jackson (1982) found that high degrees of burnout were associated with withdrawal coping strategies such as getting away from people or avoiding thoughts about the job, while low degrees of burnout were associated with social coping strategies such as talking to someone or getting advice. It is believed that coping dimensions predict burnout. The purposes of this study were threefold: (a) to assess the degree of burnout in a sample of high school teachers from Taiwan, (b) to identify the choices of coping strategies of the teachers, and (c) to examine the relationships between coping strategies and degree of burnout.

Methods

Participants

The sample included 384 (106 males and 278 females) high school teachers in Taiwan. Their mean age range was between 36 and 40. The majority of the teachers had college or higher degrees, and 47% had been in the teaching profession for 16 years or longer.

Instrumentation

All the subjects received a translated version of the MBI and WOCC. To ensure translation accuracy, the back-translation procedure (Brislin, 1980) was employed. Two bilingual translators worked independently on the translations: one translated the original versions into Chinese, and the other translated the Chinese versions back to English. Items with discrepancies between the original and back-translated English versions were retranslated. Both instruments used 7-point Likert scales with values ranging from 0 to 6. A high value indicates a high frequency of the particular behavior in the statement.

Internal consistency reliabilities for the Chinese versions of the MBI and WOCC, presented in Table 1, were moderately strong and comparable to those of the original versions. Alpha coefficients ranged from .77 to .86 for the MBI subscales, and from .69 to .85 for the WOCC subscales.

Results

Subscale scores on the MBI and WOCC are presented in Table 1. Average item scores can be obtained by dividing the mean score by the number of items for each individual scale. According to the MBI scoring criteria, the Taiwanese teacher sample was low on DP, moderate on both EE and PA. This pattern indicates a low to average degree of burnout. The WOCC shubscales that had highest mean item rating (suggesting highest behavior frequencies) was PROB, followed by REAP and SEEK, then SELF, RESP and DIST. The subscale ESCP had the lowest mean item score, and CONF was the next lowest.

Next, we examined the relationships between coping and burnout variables. Canonical correlation was performed between a set of eight coping variables and a set of 3 burnout variables using SPSS. Subjects with missing data were deleted, leaving 360 cases in the final analysis.

The first canonical correlation was .47 (22% overlapping in variance); the second was .20 (4% overlapping in variance); and the third was .14 (2% overlapping in variance). The overall multivariate tests for the three canonical correlations were significant ($p < .001$) suggesting the relationships between coping variables and burnout variables were higher than chance level. With all three canonical correlations included, the Wilk's lambda likelihood ratio was .73, and the

corresponding F test was significant with $F(24, 1013) = 4.81$ ($p < .001$). With the first canonical correlation removed, however, the subsequent F tests were not statistically significant. Therefore, the first pair of canonical variates alone accounted for the significant relationships between the two sets of variables. The following discussion will be based on the first canonical variates only.

Data on the first pair of canonical variates appear in Table 2. Shown in the table are the correlations between the variables and the canonical variates, standardized canonical coefficients, within-set variance accounted for by the canonical variates (percent of variance), redundancies, and canonical correlation.

With a cutoff correlation of .30, the coping variables that were correlated with the first canonical variate were Confrontive Coping, Distancing, Escape-Avoidance, Planful Problem Solving, and Positive Reappraisal. All three of the burnout variables correlated with the first canonical variate. The first pair of canonical variates indicated that those with high scores on Confrontive Coping (.32), Distancing (.36), and low scores on Planful Problem Solving (-.66) and positive Reappraisal (-.43) reported higher level of Emotional Exhaustion (.71) and Depersonalization (.84), and low level of Personal Accomplishment (-.73).

Discussion

In this study, we found that teachers in Taiwan experienced a lower degree of burnout in comparison with their American counterpart. The Taiwanese teachers preferred coping strategies such as Planful Problem Solving, Positive Reappraisal and Seeking Social Support to Escape-Avoidance and Confrontive Coping. The results of the canonical correlation suggest that high level of burnout is associated with more frequent use of aggressive confrontation, more frequent use of cognitive detachment, and less frequent use of deliberate problem-focused efforts and positive attitudes. These results were consistent with findings in the Maslach and Jackson's (1982) study. However, the underlying causal relationship for this correlational pattern is still not clear. Perhaps the preference to coping strategies such as Planful Problem Solving and Positive Reappraisal caused the low level of burnout in the teachers. Perhaps it is the reverse pattern: the relatively low level of burnout enabled the teachers to cope more positively.

It is not difficult to understand why the teachers in Taiwan experienced a lower level of burnout comparing with the American teachers. First, as mentioned earlier in this article, historically teachers in China have been highly respected. Despite the changes in social values in the past decades, teaching is still recognized as a decent and honorable profession. Secondly, teachers in general are better paid and have longer vacations than those working in other public services. Thirdly, the work environments in schools are considered less stressful than many other workplaces in Taiwan. In other words, most of the teachers in Taiwan feel that their work conditions are still tolerable and adjustable.

On the other hand, the emphases on the principles of loyalty ("chung") and forgiveness ("shu") in the teaching of Confucius might have contributed to the preference of coping strategies in teachers. To be loyal, one is supposed to do things with all his efforts, and to carry out self-examination when encountering difficulties. To be forgiving, one should be open-minded and strive to keep harmony with others. Teachers in Taiwan are often considered as followers of the Confucian teachings, and they might have adopted these two principles in coping with stressful situations.

This study provided some preliminary understanding of the job-related stress experienced by high school teachers in Taiwan, and their ways of coping with the stress. Future research on the identification of factors that lead to teacher burnout is warranted.

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Table 1
Item Numbers, Mean Scores, Standard Deviations and Reliabilities of MBI and WOCC Subscales

	n	Mean	SD	Alpha
MBI subscale				
Emotional Exhaustion	9	22.23	10.31	.86
Depersonalization	5	5.97	5.00	.77
Personal Accomplishment	8	36.26	6.95	.77
Total	22			.76
WOCC subscale				
Confrontive	6	13.76	4.44	.69
Distancing	6	19.14	4.85	.75
Self-Control	7	24.01	4.51	.64
Seeking Support	6	21.54	5.19	.79
Responsibility	4	13.08	3.78	.80
Escape	8	15.51	5.93	.68
Problem Solving	6	23.51	4.53	.85
Reappraisal	7	25.17	6.19	.90
Total	50			.91

Table 2
Canonical correlation and related statistics between burnout and coping variables

		First Canonical Variate		
	Correlation	Coefficient	% Variance	Redundancy
MBI variables			58.25	12.96
EE	.71	.32		
DP	.84	.50		
PA	-.73	-.48		
WOCC variables			15.21	3.38
CONF	.32	.16		
DIST	.36	.44		
SELF	-.09	-.06		
SEEK	-.24	-.17		
RESP	.03	.10		
ESCP	.54	.45		
PROB	-.66	-.66		
REAP	-.43	-.15		
Canonical correlation			.47	

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The Integration of Literature into Language Instruction

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Introduction

"Literature", a word sounds so mysterious to us. What is its relationship to language instruction? And what is the role of literature in the language classroom? The author currently is teaching at an Institute of Commerce. The students from Applied Foreign Languages Department always complain that there are too many new words in the reading text and vocabulary is their most reading difficulty. Under such a condition, it sounds impossible to teach them literature. However, in order to cultivate students' appreciation of western literature and culture, the Department sets a course "Introduction to Western Literature" to the college third graders. In teaching this course, I deeply feel how my students change their learning attitudes and motivation which encourages me to write this paper. In this study, I will explore the issue of literature in the language classroom and examine this topic with the evidences from my students and further extend it to the Chinese classroom in the U.S.

Literature Review

Why teach literature? To answer this question, we should first define this term "literature." Lazar (1993) notes that literature 1) is "feelings" and "thoughts" in black and white, 2) is the use of language to evoke a personal response in the reader or listener, and 3) is a world of different people's points of views, ideas, thoughts, minds, etc. As we understand what literature is, we face the question: Should we teach literature in a language classroom? And how is literature beneficial to learners' language learning process? This is a question which is certainly in the forefront of debate today. For a long time, literature was thought of as embodying a static convoluted kind of language, far removed from the utterances of daily communication (Collie & Slater, 1990). However, one of the main reasons to teach literature might be that literature offers a bountiful and extremely varied body of written materials which is "important" in the sense that it says something about fundamental human issues and which is enduring rather ephemeral . Carter and Long (1991) propose the following reasons for the teaching of literature:

1) The Cultural Model: Teaching literature within a cultural model enables students to understand and appreciate cultures and ideologies different from their own time and space and to come to perceive tradition of thought, feeling, and art from within the heritage the literature of such cultures endows.
2) The Language Model: Since language is the literary medium and literature is made from language, the more students can read in and through the language and the better they will be able to manipulate the language structures or specific vocabulary.
3) The Personal Growth Model: Helping students to read literature more effectively is helping them to grow as individuals as well as in their relationships with the people and institutions around them, to appreciate and evaluate complex cultural artifacts and to have more understanding of the society and culture where they are within.

Based on the three models, it is conceivable to teach literature in the language classroom. As Williams (1996) notes, language and culture are closely related and interactive. Culture is transmitted in great part through language; cultural patterns in turn are reflected in language . Also language enrichment is one benefit often sought through literature, though the language of literary work is, on the whole, not the typical of the

language of daily life, nor is it like the language used in learners' textbooks. However, extensively reading a substantial and contextualized body of text, students gain familiarity with many features of the written language - the sentence structures, vocabulary, the usage of words, and different ways of connecting ideas - which will broaden and enrich their language skills. In addition, the instruction of literature in a language classroom might be a good idea to foster a love of English reading and serve as introduction and revision of language learned in the classroom.

Some truthful reasons to teach literature in a language classroom is because 1) it is very motivating, 2) it is authentic material, 3) it is a stimulus for language acquisition, 4) it develops students' interpretative abilities, 5) it expands students' language awareness, and 6) it encourages students to talk about their opinions and feelings (Brumfit & Carter, 1986). In addition, if there is a movie based on the literature that will make it easier to read, too (Rushing, 1996). Since a good film is also a good mirror on culture and real life, a book which has an accompanying film is a great way to teach language and culture (Tillyer, 1996).

As we have seen, the process of reading is a process of meaning creation by interpreting one's own needs, understanding and expectations with a written text. Therefore, students will derive slightly different message from reading a particular book or poem (Brumfit & Carter, 1986). To have students think critically and write out essays is a good activity to get students deeply involved in reading. Writing essays is also a useful tool for encouraging students to draw on their own personal experiences, feelings and opinions about the text , and helps students to become more actively involved both intellectually and emotionally in learning English (Hayes-Scott, 1997).

Based on the above literature review, the author tries to investigate how literature instruction interacts language and culture learning in a classroom.

Methodology

(1) Subjects

Subjects were 17 students from National Pingtung Institute of Commerce. They were second graders of the five-year junior college. All were female students, with an average age of 16.3. Their average length of English study was 6.5 years.

(2) Materials and Procedure

Subjects took the course, "Introduction to Western Literature", for the academic year from September 1996 to June 1997. The textbooks were Mythology and The Notorn Anthology of World Masterpieces. Students experienced the western literature starting from the Greek and Roman mythology, Iliad, Odyssey, The Old and New Testament, The Divine Comedy, Hamlet, Songs of Innocence/ Experience, Madam Bovary, The Cherry Orchard, and to the modern drama, My Fair Lady. The three forms of literature - drama, poetry and novel, were all included in the syllabus. Students were required to complete the reading assignments before entering into the classroom. Before reading the literature, the teacher would first show students the film about the work and then offer them some background information regarding the author and the setting. Each semester, students were asked to form into a group with 4-5 people to have a deep research about a work in the aspects of the author, plot, setting, theme, characters and cultural background, and their reflections and critical thoughts on this work. Students had a oral report about their group research and after that wrote out a paper on it to hand in. Near the end of the academic year, students filled out a questionnaire about their opinions and thoughts toward literature learning.

(3) Analysis

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The data collected from the questionnaire results were analyzed by percentage and chi-square analysis with SPSS/PC statistic program. The significant level was all set at P=0.05.

Results and Discussion

Results from the questionnaire are presented as the following:

Table 1: Chi-Square Tests and Descriptive Statistics for Questionnaire Results
(N=17 * Indicates P<0.05)

	Yes	No	Chi-Square	P
1. Does reading literature aid your language learning?	94%	6%	13.235	0.000*
2. Does reading literature increase your cross-cultural knowledge?	100%	0%	17.000	0.000*

Question 1 asked subjects: "Does reading literature aid your language learning?" There were 96% of the subjects indicated "Yes"; reading literature did help their language learning. The chi-square value for question 1 is X2=13.235, P=0.000<0.05. The results show that students recognized that reading literature enriched their English learning. Question 2 asked subjects: "Does reading literature increase your cross-cultural knowledge?" There were 100% of the subjects expressed "yes"; reading literature broadened their cultural knowledge. The chi-square value for question 2 is X2=17.000, P=0.000<0.05. The results are significant.

3. After one year of literature learning, what did you obtained from this course?	Very Useful	Useful	So-So	Useless	X2	P
a. How to appreciate a literature work	18%	64%	18%	0%	15.706	0.001*
b. Critical thinking abilities	12%	59%	29%	0%	13.353	0.004*
c. Role-playing experiences and knowledge	6%	53%	35%	6%	11.000	0.015*
d. Western cultural knowledge	41%	47%	12%	0%	10.529	0.015*
e. Different ways of English expressions	29%	53%	18%	0%	10.059	0.018*

Question 3 asked subjects" After one year of literature learning, what did you obtain from this course?" Most of the subjects confirmed that from the course, they learned how to appreciate a literature work (very useful + useful = 82%), obtained critical thinking abilities (71%) and role playing experiences and knowledge (59%), knew western cultures (88%), and learned different ways of English expressions (82%). All the chi-square values are significant (P<0.05).

4. How does reading literature aid your English learning?	Very Useful	Useful	So-So	Useless	X2	P
a. English reading	24%	52%	24%	0%	9.588	0.022*
b. English vocabulary	24%	52%	24%	0%	9.588	0.022*
c. English oral skills	0%	23%	65%	12%	16.176	0.001*
d. English writing	0%	47%	53%	0%	17.118	0.001*

Question 4 asked subjects :"How does reading literature aid your English learning?" Seventy-six percent (Very useful +useful= 76%) of the subjects noted that reading literature aided their English reading and vocabulary knowledge. Forty-seven (47%) of the

subjects agreed that reading literature increased their writing abilities. In the aspect of oral skills, less percentage of subjects (23%) expressed that literature learning enriched their oral proficiency. All the chi-square values are significant (P<0.05). The results show that most students thought reading literature benefited them more in the area of English reading and vocabulary learning. It reveals that more oral practice (e.g., reading aloud the poems, or role-playing the mini-drama) can be added to the literature course.

5. What do you think the correlation among literature, language and culture?

	Closely Related	Related	So-So	No Relation	X2	P
a. Through literature, to know the target culture.	41%	59%	0%	0%	18.059	0.000*
b Literature is presented by language	47%	47%	6%	0%	13.353	0.004*
c. Literature and language reflect culture	23%	71%	0%	0%	20.882	0.000*
e. Culture presents literature	35%	65%	0%	0%	19.941	0.000*
d. Language presents culture and becomes literature	35%	65%	0%	0%	19.941	0.000*

Question 5 asked subjects: "What do you think the correlation among literature, language and culture?" Most of the subjects noted that through literature, they learn the target culture (Closely Related + Related =100%). They recognized that literature is presented by language (94%), literature and language reflect culture (100%), culture promotes literature (100%), and language presents culture and becomes literature (100%). All the chi-square values are significant (P<0.05). The results show that most subjects had the same recognition that language, literature and culture are correlated. To learn the literature also learns its language and culture, too.

Conclusion and Recommendation

From the study results, we can be sure that teaching literature in a language classroom do aid students' cultural knowledge and language learning. In the class I ever had a free conversation with my students; one of them told me that she did hate literature before taking the course. She wanted to increase her reading ability , therefore she forced herself to take this course. After one year's acquaintance with literature, she felt that she gradually won't be overwhelmed by the long reading text or the tremendous amount of vocabulary. One student expressed that she was so happy to go through reading the Madam Bovary by herself. That was a great achievement to her. She also emphasized that reading literature increased her knowledge about things and people. She widened her views around the word and tried to think critically on the things that happened in daily life. Another student declared that reading literature is experiencing life since literature is the reflection of life. That is true. After one year of literature instruction, I saw my students changing their learning attitudes and motivation. They learn to apply different views to read literature, propose their own thoughts and opinions, and enjoy reading pleasure. The films accompany the literature did me a great favor in introducing the work, which also motivated students to read the literature by themselves after watching the videos. The group work oral report and writing papers were helpful methodologies to have students deeply involved in reading and thinking literature.

The successful experience of integrating literature into language classroom in Taiwan reminds me the experiences of teaching Chinese at Chinese language school in Twin Cities, Minnesota. Actually learning any language , the environment plays a very important role. Most American born Chinese children feel that in the U.S. they have rare

chance to use Chinese. Therefore, they are not anxious to learn Chinese well. Most children are forced by their parents to go to the Chinese language school on Saturday morning (according to my observation). This situation is quite similar to the Chinese students learning English in Taiwan. I think learning interests and motivation are very important. Let students feel that they have some interests in the learning course is crucial, which will motivate them to learn better and better. Based on the above research, the integration of literature in the classroom is a powerful methodology to motivate students to learn language interestingly. (Note: I did apply a lot of children literature in the Chinese classroom.)

It is possible that teachers can really make literature come alive for students through planning appropriate class collaborative tasks. Walker (1997) have developed a task-oriented lesson to have students "always" get involved in the literature and language learning.

First: Divide the story into its "essential" main elements -setting, characters, plot, and themes, and make four questions for each category.

Second:: Put the class into groups.

Third: Distribute one set of questions to each group for discussion.

Fourth: After small group discussions, have each group orally report to the class, or

Fifth: Move two students from each group to another group and have the two students explain the discussion their group had, and the other students explain their discussion to the two new group members.

Tillyer (1996) proposes that the choice of works depends on the age and type of students and on their goals and needs. The purpose is really get students talking, thinking, reading and involved in the literature, language, and culture learning. Li (1997) notes that, in order to motivate our students, having literary texts related to their real life are necessary, such as the themes of friendship, romantic love, generation gap, or privilege vs equality, etc. Regarding students' proficiency, the teacher might consider to use the "authentic texts" or the "simplified texts". Kubasiewicz (1997) presents some arguments for using either authentic or simplified texts in language learning. He declared that the authentic texts should be used with the students because 1) they have general educational values, 2) they help students to understand another culture, 3) they expand students' language awareness, and 4) they encourage students to talk about their opinions. He further proposed that the simplified texts should be used with the students because 1)they can encourage those who are not fluent in the second/foreign language to read specimen of literary texts, 2) careful control of language ensures that students read at a level which is right and proper for them, and 3) properly graded texts motivate students to practice essential reading skills such as guessing meanings form the context. There is no conclusion whether to use the "authentic" or "simplified" texts in the language classroom; it depends on students' language proficiency and teachers' teaching methodology. In addition, to have students read aloud the poem, write their own poem, role play the mini-drama, or write out an alternative ending for a novel are all creative activities which can be added to a language classroom.

This paper presents some ideas and suggestions for integrating literature into language classroom. They aim to increase students' language learning motivation as well as to make them feel that language learning is interesting and active.

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面對二十一世紀技職教育應有的變革

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技職教育曾為我國培育了無數的技術人才，為國內經濟發展提供了寶貴的人力資源。隨著科技進步，產業經濟結構的調整，技職教育勢必作大幅度的調整，和重新定位。本文將就我國技職教育所面林的挑戰加以分析，並提出政策性的建議。

技職教育所面臨的挑戰

科技快速進步

科技發展快速，新技術的生命週期縮短。而技職教育以提共就業所須技術為主，面對如此快速變遷的技術，學校教育已經跟不上了。當然教學與應用本就有落差，不足為奇，但距離太大就必須檢討了。然而課程到底要教多深，內容配合實務到什麼程度，都要再深入研究。教學與實務脫節，固然不妥。但是如果完全配合，學校也就成了企業的訓練單位，而失去了教育的本義。這中間的尺寸如何拿捏，是技職學校，以及教育行政單位為所面臨的挑戰。

科際整合君子不器

科技不僅快速發展，更快速整合。以前講求專業，如今不僅講求專業更重視多元化，甚至是全方位。例如面對與日俱增的企業法律糾紛，法律學分對企管人愈來愈重要；法律系學生也必對商業行為有更深入的瞭解，因此財經法學系近年來蓬勃發展。跨科系選修，修輔系，或雙學位已受高度重視，擁有多樣專長已成為進入就業市場的有利條件。隨著貿易國際化，商業人員對外語的要求愈來愈嚴格，國貿科已將許多英文課列為必修課程。語文科系畢業者除非以研究語文本身為主題，否則會發現，語文是一項重要的工具，仍必須要搭配其他專業的技能，才能為就業市場所接受。

面對如此高度和快速的科際整合，技職教育對課程整合的反應似乎不夠快。當然，是否具有教授整合型課程的師資也是一個問題。以目前列入商科必修課程的商用英文為例，應是由商科系學畢業的老師任教呢？或是由具有英文背景的老師為之？前者所受的英文教學訓練有限，受後者對商業知識的瞭解不足，不論是誰教課，都倍感吃力。科技整合已使技職教育面臨一個，由誰來教整合形專業科目的新課題。

技職教育再定位

經濟發展改善人們再進修的能力，而追求高學歷本來就是國人根深蒂固的觀念，近年來開放高等學府的設立，三者結合後，始得報考大學人數激增，錄取率也逐年提高。一般教育學生的進修管道非常通暢，技職教育的進修管道相對而言就比較窄。不容諱言，在國內技職教育本就是次佳選擇，進修管道又相對不足，學生進入技職體系就讀的意願更降低了。已進入技職教育的學生也想「轉換跑道」，造成五專、二專畢業學生想插班大學或是考二年制技術學院，高職生以升四年制技術學院或二專爲主，整個技職教育已經以升學爲導向。進入技職教育體系只是暫時性的，換言之，技職教育最基本以就業爲主的教學目標，已然鬆動了。

技職教育本身亦似應加以檢討，高職（高工、高商、高農）的課程是否仍能符合社會的需求，科技高度發展後，更需要通識教育爲基礎，在學生興向未定之前，過早的分流，對學生而言也並不恰當。現在國內以試辦許多綜合高中（comprhensive high school），將一般高中及高職課程融合，高職是否應繼續存在，值得吾人深入的探討。整個技職教育的定位，須要重新思考。

升學的管道太少

國人觀念中，總希望能擁有學士學位，預估今年大學聯招的錄取率已高達百分之六十，如此高的錄取率，更加吸引學生。就技職教育而言，須由技術學院畢業才能獲得學士，但是技術學院術的容納量相對龐大技職學生，顯然不足，因此技職學生大量流失，由於進修的管道不足，是造成學生面對技職教育裹足不前的原因。

由技職體系畢業的學生，工作一段時日之後，欲回校再進修。其豐富的工作經驗，故然幫助其對課堂所習，但是對其入學考試卻幫助有限。追求更高的學歷，尤其是學士學位，實在是很普通的一件事。因此大幅提高技職教育生進修錄取率，重反學校的機會，是技職教育的另一項挑戰。而在眾多需求中，做最有效的分配，更是一個需要智慧的工作。

技職教育應有的變革

技職教育已面臨到許多的挑戰，必須有所變革以爲因應。三年前爲回應國內高漲的教育改革之聲，成立了教育改革委員會，在其諸多的研究報告，建意書中，技職教育所佔的比重並不高。教育部在其教育報告書中，對技職教育提出施政的方針：

暢通技職教育學生進修管道

放寬修業年限

推廣建教合作

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教育部技職司也規劃出我國技職教育的發展策略（吳清基，民國 86 年）：

修定相關法規

提供多元入學管道

擴大課程彈性

辦理綜合高中，延後分流

加強教師實務經驗

落實證照制度

對教育行政單位所作的規劃，個人深表支持。然而吾人也應有更深層次的思考，那就是整個技職教育的的方向。

技職教育體系重新整合

科技發展已徹底改變產業結構，以及生產方式，相對也改變了技職教育的教學內容。企業愈來愈重視員工職業道德操守，人與人之間的的合作、相處，強調敬業的的精神，發現、分析、解決問題的能力，要求工作中加入更具邏輯性的思考方式(critical thinking process)。整體技術提昇以後，初級的技術或機械式的重復動作已爲自動化生產取代。工作人員不單僅會操作技巧，更要以整體生產線、品管的觀念。技術層次的提高，對基本通識教育的要求，及標準也相對提高，因此職教生的基本通識課程時數也有增加之必要。綜合高中是基於此理念下而建立的，把從國中三年級開始的分流教育與以延後。

無可諱言，許多高職生以升二專或四技爲主，而在技術，及通識課程要求日高的情形下，高職的技術訓練似無法滿足需求。高職學歷所得到的認同也有限，已有許多高職改爲綜合高中，或許這是一個值得吾人思考的方向。

高中與高職的聯合－綜合高中

綜合高中具有高中教育學術預備功能，高職教育的陶冶功能，一般中等教育的人格教育功能，其課程兼顧升學與就業需求，分共同乎學術導向及實業學術導向課程。課程規劃在健提供選擇及轉換的空間，而不爲既有系統綁住；學生能夠在寬廣領域中找尋自己的興趣，在老師輔導下，生涯規劃。技職教育體系的調整，在給予學生認識自己，並且回到自己喜歡且能夠走的路上，而不是終生後會悔或放棄。

技職教育的再定位

我國現在技職學校學生升學意願強烈，高職畢業生考二專、四年制技學學院，考上二專者，不辭勞苦，再考二年制技術學院，五專生要插大或二年制技術學院，

其目標是學士學位。三年制專科已停辦，五專升格爲技術學院，高職走向綜合高中。個人認爲專科學校是否仍需存在，高職是否仍應維持，實有檢討的必要。個人深覺以往技職教育爲配合時代背景，所以學制頗爲複雜，以後吾人應朝簡化學制方放向努力。

技職教育目標在於提供就業可用之技術，一旦就業之後，會有書到用時方恨少之嘆，因此在職進修就成爲技職教育的另一重要的話題。許多工作多年的人，希望再入學進修，可惜學校不足或班次未能配合而無法達成願望。相對制式學校教育的學生，在職進修學生因工作或個人因素，再入學的困難度較高，因此技職教育應有終身學習的理念結合，學習者可隨時進出技職教育體系。

技職教育必須切合實際，不能關起門來做研究，而要拆除藩籬，與社會、社區企業結合，構成學習網路，變成多功能的教學機制和企業結合、資訊交流、技術合作，技職教育的課程才不至於落伍、躬節。但畢竟是技職教育而非技藝訓練班，技職教育不能成爲某一企業的職訓班，之間的拿捏的確值的注意。當然個人不反對在技職教育與產業合作情形下，爲某企業代辦訓練，但是不能取代原教育功能。技職教育的再定位，目標釐清，有助技職教育的再出發。

課程內容的調整

科技整合，使課程內容必須跟著調整、更新，以及新課程的加入。不僅要切合實際，更要具有前瞻性。加強人文科目，重識思考啓發，強調團隊合作。尤其是培養學生邏輯思考的能力。不單是學習課程內容，更要學習「自我學習的能力」，技職教育的課程不應僅拘限在技巧或技術的傳授，當然也不是要走向學術化，這是技職教育改革最重要的部份之一，實有賴學術界、產業界、教育界共同努力。

技職院校教師的再進修

技職學校師資要會教學，更要具有某種技術專長，教育部放寬了遴聘技術教師的資格，持有職業證照或具有高普考、專門職業工作經驗者，可任教專科。這是技職教育的一大改革。擴大了師資來源，也結合了實務。技職教育體系的專任老師，因技術的改變、工商的發展，需要不斷進修。以商用英文爲例，同時擁有英文和商學方面學位者不多，眾多老師幾乎爲英文系或商學院畢業，前者欠缺商業知識後者徙欠缺合英文教學的專業訓練。因此老師的再進修，就非常重要了。專業知識的再進修，實務經驗的充充實，都有在職訓練，有些可校園內自行開課，舉行教學研討會，或由教育部指定學校開辦訓練課成。課程規劃可結合學術和產業界。目前國內有學校正式開辦暑期班，有如美國的 summer section，個人認爲如要全面實施，似有再斟酌的必要。因爲暑假期間是教師主要進修時間，一旦全面實施暑期上課，教師勢必無法充電。現在暑修以特殊狀況學生、轉系補修、

或避免延畢者爲主的情形應仍暫時維持。要鼓勵教師再進修，面對科技快速發展，再進修已成爲老師工作的一部份。

結　　論

技職教育面臨許多挑戰，到了轉型的十字路口，轉向何方，轉向的教學目標，如何落實，教學內容、課程設計、教材教具的編審制作，更需要全面整合，做整體性思考。教育改革帶動制度面的更新，影響深遠，吾人願以如臨深淵，如履薄冰的謹慎態度去從事，教導出能面對二十一世紀的學生。

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Empowerment Through Participation:

A Look At Asians In The American Teaching Force

亞裔教師在哪里？

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据月前的《世界日報》報道，在美國中小學校，由于亞裔學生和亞裔教師的人數不成比例，導致亞裔學生對學校環境适應不良，并引起嚴重的心理障礙甚至自殺(世界日報，1997)。這無疑引起了關心亞裔子女教育的人們對亞裔教師嚴重短缺的現象進行深刻的思考和討論。人們不禁要問：亞裔教師在哪里？為什么？如何吸引更多的亞裔人士加入美國中小學校教育的行列？

美國教育界嚴重缺乏亞裔人員是長期以來一個眾所周知的事實。早在二十多年前，有感于從事教育研究的亞裔人士寥寥無几，伊教授(1976)對此現象便進行了深刻的分析。但人們真正開始對亞裔教師的研究和討論只是近几年才慢慢興起的(Chinn & Wong, 1992; Rong & Goetz, 1989)。由于美國社會人口结构的急遽變化，各界人士對未來教育的發展十分擔憂。据估計，如果美國人口繼續按目前的趨勢增長，到公元2000年，美國公立學校的少數族裔學生將占學生總數的百分之四十六，但只有不足百分之五的教師具有少數族裔的背景。而更令人憂心的是，當少數族裔快速增長的同時，各地尤其是市區學校的少數族裔教育人員正在急劇減少。有鑒如此，自八十年代末期以來，美國各級教育行政，教育專業組織和學術團体，以及師資培訓机构，為有效地吸收和保留更多的少數族裔教師進行了大量的努力(Anglin, 1993; NBPTS, 1993; Matcznski & Joseph, 1989)。但亞裔教師的嚴重短缺似乎并未引起美國主流社會的濃厚興趣和關注。這可能主要有兩方面的原因。其一是，亞裔人口相對較少，而且主要集中分布在東西兩岸的大都市，對全美國的影響似乎微不足道；其二是，自七十年代以來，由于亞裔在教育和經濟上取得的成就，人們普遍地視亞裔為美國社會的"模范少數族群"(model minority)，覺得亞裔人口在教育和就業等方面并不需要特別的關照。

但是，真正關心和熟悉亞裔社區的人會知道，亞裔是目前美國人口增長最快的少數族群。僅1991年以來，亞裔人口便增加了百分之二十七，約占美國總人口的百分之三。而中小學校里具有亞裔背景的教師人數還不到百分之一，遠遠低于應有的理比例，使亞裔學生和亞裔教師的比例嚴重失調。以亞裔人口非常集中的紐約市為例，1996-97學年度，紐約市公立學校的亞裔學生占學生總數的百分之九點五，亞裔教師只占教師總數的百分之二點五(世界日報，1997)。由于語言，文化和种族背景的差异，少數族裔學生，尤其是新一代亞裔移民的子女，在主流學校教育的環境中往往會遇到一系列問題，諸如語言溝通障礙，背景知識和學習概念的混淆，教育方法与

學習方法的矛盾，以及文化沖突等等 (Ogbu, 1995)。當亞裔學生遇到文化震撼，或語言障礙導致學習困難時，如得不到及時妥當的幫助和輔導，亞裔學生可能會被錯誤地編班分組，嚴重影響他們的學習情緒和自尊心，并阻礙學習能力的發展。由于种族和文化背景的差异，一些對少數族裔充滿無知和偏見的教師甚至促成了少數族裔學生學習上的失敗和心靈上的創傷 (Washington, 1979)。如果學校里有亞裔教師和輔導員，因為他們自身的亞裔背景，他們更能与亞裔學生在語言和文化上進行溝通，理解亞裔學生所遭遇到的學習困難和心理障礙，有效地幫助亞裔學生适應學校環境。而且，主流學校里的亞裔教師也為亞裔和其他族裔的學生起到榜樣示范(role model) 的作用。在潛移默化中，使他們認識到亞裔不只是精于數理科技的書生，也可以成為教書育人的典范，最終打破主流社會對亞裔的刻板印象。另外，亞裔教師特有的語言文化背景和优秀的東方教育傳統，也可以幫助彌補美國自由教育之不足，并為其他族裔的學生，教師和家長提供一個學習和了解亞裔文化的窗口。因此，吸收和培養更多的亞裔教師是十分有益的。我們應當集思廣義，為提升亞裔的整体教育水准和社會地位共同努力，這將是一個緊迫而艱難的課題。

人們普遍地認為，通過自己的刻苦努力，亞裔在充滿机會和競爭的美國社會取得了教育上令人矚目的成功，而我們也為此感到驕傲和自豪。的确，翻一翻歷年來美國西屋科學獎和總統學者獎的獲獎者名單，查一查各長春藤名校的亞裔學生人數和所占的比例，比一比每年美國高中生的SAT成績，再看一看美國各級各類大學和研究机构的黃皮膚黑眼睛，亞裔的教育成就是顯而易見的。但是，只要我們更仔細地觀察和分析就會發現，所謂的"模范族裔(model minority)"其實是一個過分夸大了的片面性刻板印象，掩蓋了亞裔面臨和遭遇到的重重障礙。亞裔實質上是一個十分复雜多元化的族群。由于出生地的不同，移民美國的原因和途徑上的差异，在美國時間上的長短，反映在文化傳統，英語能力，教育水平，生涯發展，以及美國化的程度等等方面都存在著很大的差异，两极分化十分嚴重，而這些往往是美國主流社會難于知曉的 (Feng, 1995)。

就亞裔群体的職業分布而言，便明顯地存在著所謂的"職業隔离"現象(career segregation)。那就是，雖然一方面很多亞裔人士從事与科學技術有關的職業而且成績可佳，但另一方面，涉及人文社會學科領域的亞裔少之又少，而從事美國中小學校教育的更是鳳毛麟角，屈指可數。盡管最近十几年來，隨著亞裔尤其是華裔人口的快速增長，在熱心人士的努力下，美國各地先后成功地辦起了中文學校，從事正職的或業余的中國語言和文化教育的華裔教師日益增多。但是，他們并不屬于美國主流社會的教育成分，未被納入正規的主流教育体系，只局限于華人社區而已。對于自古以來以教育為重，以教師為尊的亞裔來說，這种對基礎教育的有限度參預似乎不可思議。究其緣由，也十分复雜。可幸的是，近年來，有些學者已經開始從社會，文化，和心理學等不同的角度對亞裔的職業選擇和生涯發展進行深入的探討(Hsia, 1988; Leong, 1985; Leong, 1991; Leung, Ivey & Suzuki, 1994)，而這些研究對我們分析美國亞裔教師短缺的現象頗有啟示意義。

從歷史上講，亞裔移民美國的歷史相對較短，人數相對較少，而真正的亞洲移民高潮只是近二十多年的事。由于語言和文化上的障礙，新一代亞洲移民往往在适應美國主流文化和社會生活的過程中遭遇重重困難。要想

進入以非母語的英語為必要溝通手段，以美國社會和文化為主要背景的中小學教育行業，對許多第一代亞裔來說，縱然滿腹經綸，也只能是"心有余而力不足"，"英雄無用武之地"。由于美國各州現有的教師資格考核制度，任何從事中小學教育的正式員必須經過正規的師范訓練并取得教師証格証書。新一代亞裔移民中不乏在原居住國訓練有素，經驗丰富的优秀教員，但客居他鄉异國，時過境遷，欲重操舊業，必須一切重新開始。對那些新來咋到的亞裔移民，窘于語言和文化上的障礙，"而今邁步從頭越"絕非易事。

從美國社會和政治的角度分析，我們知道，盡管中小學教師從事的是高尚的職業，但在以功利主義為特征的美國社會里并不享有應有的社會地位。眾多的中小學教師在完成日常的教學任務以外，還要應付日益增多的學生行為管教問題(如暴力和毒品)，以及來自學生家長的五花八門的要求。在反反复复的教育改革中，中小學教師往往首當其沖，不得不承受大眾媒介和行政當局的無休止的批評指責。沉重的工作壓力，惡劣的教學環境等等，不僅僅令美國主流族群的有志青年對教師職業望而怯步，更使身為少數族群的亞裔學子敬而遠之，這也便不足為奇。

在自由主義的市場經濟制度下，美國社會充滿著机會和競爭。由勞動力市場的調節以及各行各業對專業人員的教育訓練要求各异，職業間的薪資和報酬往往相差懸殊。而不幸的是，美國中小學教師的薪水普遍偏低。1994年度，全美教師平均年薪僅34200美元，遠遠低于商業，工程，和電腦等行業。因而，"两袖清風"的教書生涯，對崇尚功利的美國人缺乏吸引力，使包括眾多亞裔在內的优秀學生都紛紛涌入實用，薪資优厚，社會上熱門的行業。作為客居异鄉的移民，在東西文化的沖突与交融中，亞裔也像其它移民族群一樣，創造了自己獨特的移民文化。這种移民文化的一個顯著特征便是實用和功利主義的生活態度和价值觀念。因此，最有利于生存和發展的行業便成為亞裔竞相追逐的目標。

除了歷史的，社會的，以及經濟的原因以外，另一個与亞裔教師短缺現象有密切關聯的特殊因素是亞裔的個性心理特征。霍蘭德(Holland, 1985)在職業心理學研究的基礎上，創立了職業個性理論(theory of vocational personalities)。根据這一理論，他將人的個性和職業划分為六大類，即現實型(realistic)，探索型(investigative)，藝術型(artistic)，社會型(social)，進取型(enterprising)，和傳統型(conventional)。一般而言，個人的職業選擇通常是其個性特征的反映。當一個人選擇和從事的職業以及工作的環境与其個性特點相匹配時，這個人工作起來就會如魚得水，得心應手；反之，則怀才不遇，多有"身在曹營心在漢"之感。教書育人屬于社會型職業，要求教師具有活潑開朗的性格，良好的語言能力和社會交往技能，最适応社會型性格的人。有關亞裔心理特征和職業傾向的研究表明，一般而言，受不同文化和社會環境的影響，与歐裔美國人相比，亞裔性格比較含蓄，內向，保守，窘于言談和社交，缺乏冒險和創新精神，少有社會型個性(Leong, 1985)；另一方面，亞裔有較多的探索型個性，長于數理邏輯的思考和運算，富有強烈的科學探索精神和能力，歷年來亞裔在各項學術性向標准化測量上的表現就是有力的佐証(Hsia, 1988)。這也許令人有"刻板印象"之嫌，但它的确從一個重要的側面幫助我們分析和理解為什么亞裔教師奇缺，而科技人才比比皆是的所謂"職業隔离"現象。

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在目前及以后相當長的時期內，美國中小學校面臨著嚴重的師資短缺。据估計，從 1994 年到 2005 年的 十年時間內，美國可能需要聘用 606,000 新的中小學校教師，使教育成為世紀交替之際的十五大 熱門職業之一 (Greenwald, 1997)。在許多其他行業面臨 勞動力飽和或激烈競爭的情況下，教育領域將是一個大有潛力 的就業市場。 隨著少 數族裔人口的迅速增長，美國多元文化教育運動的日益高漲，中小學校對來自少 數族裔，具有多元文化背景和雙語能力的教師之需求也 越來越大 。 這些因素可以說為更多的亞裔加入美國中小學教師的行列創 造了良好的時机。但也正如以上的分析表明，為鼓勵更多的亞裔從事教育工作，我們必須共同努力，克服重重障礙。在此，我想提出個 人的几點思考，旨為拋磚 引玉。

1. 建立亞裔教師聯絡网 (network), 樹立亞裔教師的模范榜 樣 (role model)。目前亞裔教師雖少，且主要分散于一些亞裔人口相對密集的地區，其中不乏為人師表的优秀教員。我們可以通過各种不同的渠道如亞裔社區，亞裔文化或專業團体，教育机构，亞裔媒体，与亞裔教師取得聯絡，建立穩定而有效的聯絡网，擴 大 亞裔教師的可見度。CAERDA在聯絡和召集美國教育界的華裔學者和專家上做出了可喜可嘉的成績，但可否在已有 的基礎上擴大會員對象和范圍，吸 收從事實際教育工作的中小學華裔教師，有待同仁商榷。

2. 發揮高等教育中亞裔人士的橋梁作用。從人口比例上講，美國高等院校中亞裔教授和研究人員的數 量還是可觀的；而且，近几年來，大學教育學院 (系)中直接從事師范教育的亞裔人數也在不斷增加。 為解決師資短缺的問題，許多公立大學正致力于招募和培養更多少數族裔學生進入中小學教育專業，但受主流社會的刻板印象所影響，對招募亞裔師資的積极性并不高。那么，亞裔教育學者和教授應該積极主動地參預和推動本校招募亞裔學生的工作，維護亞裔學生的合法權益。既幫助師資培訓机构更多的了解亞裔學生的需要，也幫助亞裔社區，家長和學生 更多地了解美國師范教育的特點和要求，建立起溝通教育机构和亞裔社區的橋梁。

3. 鞏固和加 強 中文學校的發展。近年來，隨著華裔人數的快 速增長，在許多熱心人士的大力支持下，各地中文學校迅速發 展，為保留，傳播和弘揚中國語言和文化起著日益重要的作用。 中文學校不乏經驗丰富的优秀教員，但我們應該鼓勵更多的中校教師接受美國師范教育的在職培訓和進修，既可以加 深對美國主流教育觀念和方法的理解和運用，有利于提升中校教育水准，也為華裔教師轉入美國主流教育系統創 造机會和條件。

4. 鼓勵和支持有志于教育事業的亞裔學生。對有志于從事中小學教育的亞裔青年，亞裔社區和專業團体可以通過集資，設立教育專業的獎學或助學基金，為他們提供精神上的鼓勵和經濟上的支持。

5. 鼓勵亞裔學生多方面發展，開拓廣泛的就業領域。 鼓勵亞裔學生在繼續發展良好的數理科技能力的同時，加強 英語語言，社會交往和領導才 能的鍛練，培養對人文社會科學的興趣。

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Making Instructional Media With College Students

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Beliefs

This is a report on the ongoing project of making instructional media with college students. The researcher started his teaching career in elementary and secondary schools. He taught in colleges throughout his life and was a professor of education in Taiwan Normal University for thirty years. He recognizes the importance of audio-visual education. He sees that the instructional materials or teaching aids should be developed by individual teachers in order to meet their own needs. He found that the students were good co-workers. He thinks that if one teacher has developed a series of instructional media to match a textbook, other teachers in the same field using the same book or even a different book will benefit from it. He insists that students should be "learning by doing" and that better work is done through groups. Since the extension of nine-year national education in Taiwan in 1968, he has discovered that the instructional media are pervasively needed and that they are not only useful in elementary and secondary schools, but also in institutes of higher education.

Units and Ideas Selected

The researcher has put all his thoughts into practice. When he taught the course of Fundamentals of Teaching in Taiwan Normal University, he asked the students to cooperate with him to develop various media. The process of the development can be divided into four stages. The first stage was to select the units and ideas to be implied. Most of them are selected from the book "Principles and Methods of Teaching," which was written by the researcher and published in 1981 in Taipei. It has won the award from the China Education Society in Taiwan.

Cartoons Drawing

The second stage was to ask the students who were talented in art design to cartoon the ideas they obtained from the book. He asked them to work in groups with a qualified leader they selected. Through group discussions, the labor division was made. For example, in order to make the cartoons more coherent and unifying, the person making the draft and the person responsible for the colors had to be clearly assigned. However, they think, plan, execute, evaluate and revise together.

Slide Making

The third stage was to develop slides. As people know, cartoons are teaching aids, but they cannot be preserved for long. They have to be transformed into slides. Here, the students need photo skills and the knowledge to develop film. Some of the slides were developed by students themselves and others by photo shops or the College A-V Center. Based upon the images on the slides, the researcher wrote the narratives. Most narratives were used to explain the image, but some were used to supplement it. In order to have a better announcing effect, professional broadcasters were utilized. While taping, the background music was added. After that, another time-consuming and annoying task came to the researcher. It was to synchronize the audio with the visual. Over the course of many years, twenty units of slides with tapes were developed. By careful scrutinizing, only ten units of slides and tapes can be used in the classroom, two of which were entirely

completed by the students themselves. By and large, the media produced after 1980 were much better. There were two main reasons. The first was the experience of the work has been transmitted from class to class chronologically. The second was that around that year several marvelous units were produced by the students, which set good examples for the successors. The teaching strategy the researchers used was to let the higher class influence the lower class. He thinks that excellence or creation comes from competition. Based upon the researcher's observation, the students who participated in the work learned more and showed more interests while other students who viewed the media showed the interests, too, and were much impressed.

Unit Contents

A brief description of the contents of each unit are as follows:

- The first unit is called "Three Principles of Modern Teaching" (51 slides, 20 minutes). Psychological, scientific and socialized principles are introduced.
- The second unit is called "Taxonomy of Teaching Methods" (55 slides, 30 minutes). It classifies teaching methods according to different standards and encourages the audience to grasp the principles implied.
- The third unit is called "Instructional Planning" (109 slides, 30 minutes). It talks about the selection of contents, utilization of teaching resources and the construction of a unit plan.
- The fourth unit is called "Evaluation of Teaching Results" (109 slides, 30 minutes). It talks about the functions, principles, and procedures of evaluation. The new-type and essay tests are emphasized.
- The fifth unit is called "Reflections of Teaching I" (54 slides, 22 minutes). It introduces the ideas from Kimball Wile's famous book "Teaching for Better Schools."
- The sixth unit is called "Reflections of Teaching II" (33 slides, 15 units). It introduces the researcher's ideas from his own book which was mentioned before.
- The seventh unit is called "Lecture Method" (51 slides, 25 minutes). It talks about the advantages and disadvantages of the lecture method and reminds the audience how to develop the advantages and diminish the disadvantages.
- The eighth unit is called "Guidance Task" (90 slides, 36 minutes). It stresses teaching as guidance and advocates the teacher should work as a guidance worker.
- The ninth unit is also called "Guidance Task" (90 slides, 36 minutes). It uses the dialogues instead of common narratives. The speakers are students themselves.
- The tenth unit is called the "Group Method" (60 slides, 25 minutes). It talks about its advantages, disadvantages, when to use it, and the cautions to be observed.

Transfer to Video

The fourth stage was to make the videos. Recently the researcher's colleague suggested transferring the ten units of slides and tapes into videos in order to make them easier to carry, manage and show. Before the transfer, the researcher had to do some editing, including some changes to images and captions, especially changing the vertical images to horizontal ones. Because of the lack of proper equipment and needed skills, the result was unsatisfactory. Finally the researcher had to resort to a commercial organization for help. So far, ten videos have also been developed and are more convenient to use.

Their Use

For whom are those slides and videos developed? The researcher's answer is that any one who teaches how to teach can use them no matter what textbooks they use. They can be used both for the pre-service education in the colleges of education and for in-service education in elementary and secondary schools. They also can be used in any other education organization related. How are they used? People might have different thinking. Based upon the researcher's experience, they are usually better suited for use in the classroom, but they can also be viewed by individuals at home. When viewing in the classroom, a discussion should be conducted afterwards. Usually people should watch a whole unit, but when necessary, people can just watch a part of it. Most important is that the ideas expressed in the media are not the absolute truth. Truth can be different at different times and in different places. Therefore, discussions and arguments are needed.

Perspectives

Although both slides and videos are not professionally perfect, they are accomplished. The main participants were the researcher and the students. All of them enjoyed the happiness of accomplishment. They believe that such grass-roots approach to developing instructional media is worth advocating in the coming years. However, in the long process of media developing, the researcher has confronted many problems and difficulties. The important and urgent ones are as follows:

1. To match the new development of instructional technology, how can they let the media be computerized?
2. In order to continue the project, how can they obtain more researchers to work together?
3. How can they obtain financial support?
4. Because of the cartoons made by students, how to deal with their right of the intangible asset?
5. How to extend the use of the media (slides and videos) they have already made?
6. Can the media be bi-lingual and even multi-lingual?

In-closing

At last, the researcher still has a few words to say. This project is a by-product of his teaching career. Actually he is not an audio-visual person, nor an instructional technologist, but he wants to do what a teacher should do. In this project, he has spent a lot of time, energy, and even money. He suffered much. He was often depressed. Hopefully, through this reporting and discussion, this project will be continuing its development and some organizations or individuals might take-over it.

Teachers' Perception of Professional Development School

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During the last decade or so, the professional development school (PDS) has emerged as a vanguard in the ongoing educational reform movement. Derived from such antecedents as laboratory schools and teacher centers, the PDS model has had a dual mission. First and foremost, its purpose has been the restructuring of schools. The second major goal has been the development of teacher education and public schools at a professional level (Goodlad, 1984, 1990; Holmes Group, 1986, 1990). In order to accomplish this dual mission, both universities and public schools must work together to innovate and improve teaching methods and techniques, advance preservice education and inservice education, and endeavor for scholarly inquiry and research pursuits. Although the promise of a new school model appears greatly appealing to teachers, they tend to be more concerned with what will influence their daily instruction and what they need to do today. However, through the scrutinization of a large body of research in this area, we found teachers' interests and expectation received little, if any, attention.

Thus, the purpose of this study is to focus on school teachers' perception of the PDS model. Their interpretation, comprehension and feedback may help the conversation have the resonance of *two* hands clapping (Barth, 1990). Their articulations and expectations need to be treated interinstituationally rather than solely interindividually (Clark, 1986; Goodlad, 1993; McGowan, 1990; Su, 1986; Goodlad, 1993). Furthermore, the establishment of PDS model should move forward from envision to enaction (Stoddart, 1993), the enaction of educational success.

Methods

Participants: Participating in the investigation were 45 teachers from pre-kindergarten to 6th grade levels at one elementary school in a large, metropolitan school district in the Southeastern U.S. The participants were interviewed individually by one of the two investigators of the study.

Instrument: The questionnaire for the interview was designed by the researchers from a university in South Florida. Initially, a tentative list of questions was derived from a list of potential questions provided by each member of the research team. After gathering suggestions and feedback during a pilot study with two teachers, the researchers produced a final draft interview.

Procedures: The interview started in mid-September, 1996 and ended at the end of February, 1997. The interviewer followed the basic principles of interviewing outlined by Bogdan and Biklen (1992). The arrangement of each interview was set up one week earlier. During each interview, after the permission to record the interviewee's words was granted, the researcher tape-recorded the interviewee's response. Each interview lasted from 20 to 30 minutes.

Coding procedures: To establish codes for the interview data, the two researchers independently read every interview. The researchers searched the responses for common ideas and themes with regard to each question (Strauss & Corbin, 1990), and, on a basis of these, developed a list of categories. Using this coding scheme, the researchers then tabulated all responses within the respective categories, and recorded representative quotes for each.

Results

We represent our results by categorizing the twelve interview questions except for Question 10 (which was not finally analyzed due to its irrelevance to the purpose of the study) into four subgroups, namely, restructuring, professionalism, relationship, and problems. This arrangement largely reflects on teachers' perception of the PDS model in terms of the dual mission, partnership, and drawbacks that may hinder the enaction of the PDS project.

I. Restructuring

During the past few years, the school in the study has undergone a huge and fundamental change. This change has brought about a new outlook on the dynamic and progressive school, reshaped and refueled the school operational mechanisms, and inspired school teachers for scholarly pursuits.

New Outlook

In response to the first question, *how is a professional development school different from a regular elementary school,* 42 (93%) of the respondents ascertained that the PDS model apparently exceeds far beyond the scope of a regular school that assumes traditional duties and responsibilities. Involved in this new type of institution, teachers are frequently exposed to "new teaching strategies," "techniques," "ideas," and "methods," which might have been "unheard of" or "unknown" to them. Thus, their vision has no longer been narrowly restrained to their locality but has been opened in width and breadth, so that teachers can perceive or can keep in step with "new trends," "new tendency," etc.

Within this atmosphere, teachers are feeling "proud," "happy," and "fortunate" to enjoy a great deal of "prestige" that any other non-PDS can scarcely obtain. 10 respondents (22%) said that their attitudes are more positive, and their self-esteem and personal values are enhanced. In addition, 12 respondents (27%) stated that they are more aware of becoming learners, excited at absorbing information relevant to their daily instruction from various kinds of workshops, study groups and instructional programs.

In general, teachers in the PDS are receiving constantly from their partner, invaluable support, technical, social and financial. 22 respondents (49%) acknowledged the importance of collaboration between universities and schools. They felt that university professors keep in touch more directly with school teachers, supporting and guiding school teachers to improve school instruction, which may maintain an unbroken cycle of educational system to youngsters. To tackle problems occurring in school daily instruction, 18 respondents (40%) acclaimed the essential role university professors play in working with school teachers as a team for scholarly inquiry, the outcome of which may guide and improve classroom instruction, and ultimately raise the school education as a whole. School teachers, in turn, help their university partner by providing them with classrooms and schoolchildren for scholarly inquiry, training interns on the school site, and inputting their precious feedback and suggestions to their partner with regard to their various academic pursuits. Therefore, the collaboration and cooperation between public schools and universities make it possible the dissemination of theoretical models and implementation of pedagogical strategies. Also, 19 respondents (42%) held that within the PDS the interns from the university can accelerate the development of their professional training on the school site.

Although many university faculty members are regularly participating in school teaching practice, the Professor in Residence (PIR), who is year-long involved in the instructional operation on the school site, contributes the most to the development of partnership from its inception to maturation. 36 respondents (80%) pinpointed that PIR can not only provide workshops, introduce theoretical models to the school teachers, but also demonstrate how to instruct through various means to gain a certain goal. In addition, PIR affects school teachers as a "role model," radiating various spectrum of her/his typical personality and glamour. Finally, PIR serves as a "representative," "liaison," or a

"diplomat." Since this diplomat is the "representative of the university," an interinstitutional agent, or a "liaison," its role is to "keep in touch with the needs of school and the needs of the interns."

Organizational Reshaping

In the PDS, will such decisions as guidelines to the school educational development and instructional arrangement be made solely by school administrators, or university partners? Can classroom teachers participate in school-wide decisive organizations, for instance, the School Advisory Committee, where they can voice their opinions and suggestions? In response to Question 7, *who will be on the school advisory committee,* 18 respondents (40%) suggested that school administrators be on the committee, while 14 (31%) and 6 (13%) respondents insisted that the university faculty members and parents, respectively, on the committee. Whereas, the majority of respondents, 41 of them (91%), requested that adequate teacher representatives be on the committee, hence their needs and interests can be secured, their desire and voice may receive attention, and their empowerment and responsibility will be enhanced.

In terms of teacher representatives, 17, 4, 12 and 11 respondents, specified that general education teachers, UTD representatives, grade level chairs or representatives, and representatives from special areas, primary and intermediate levels, respectively, need to be on the committee. 8 respondents held that the committee needs to include persons from various sections, such as interns, someone from TEC, older students, the university faculty members from other departments in addition to the persons from School of Education. Finally, 14 and 16 respondents maintained that the teacher representatives should be on a volunteer-basis, and selected by all school personnel, respectively.

On the whole, the School Advisory Committee should be composed of personnel at three levels. At the school level, except the school administrators, the teachers representatives should be on a volunteer-basis, or nominated by school personnel. The representatives should stand for regular teachers from kindergarten, primary level to intermediate level, teachers from special areas, and persons from other departments. At the university level, representatives from university are mainly faculty serving as institutional agents, including PIR. At the community level, especially representatives of students' parents should be involved in the committee. On the committee, representatives from each part should be given chances to voice their opinions on various school instructional operation.

It is not just the committee where teachers can voice their opinions. They can seek other channels to input their ideas and suggestions. In response to Question 6, *how much input do you feel you have in influencing the direction of the university/school partnership,* 33 respondents (73%) believed that they can find channels to input their ideas and suggestions, For instance, they could do so either in speech form at the school faculty meeting, or in written form sent to the PIR's mail-box at the school. In this way, their interests and voice have received more or less attention. 6 respondents (13%) held, however, that they don't care to input their suggestions for various reasons. The remaining 6 respondents (13%) seemed uncertain about whether he/she needs to input through various channels.

Anyhow, education reform exerts a huge impact on the PDS and leads it to various changes. How, then, can school teachers withstand these changes? In response to Question 5, *what changes would you like to see take place in the university/school partnership,* 2 respondents (4%) wanted to see more changes in two or more areas. More respondents, 27 (60%), expected to see some changes in one or two areas. 14 respondents (31%), on the other hand, didn't want to see more changes, or dramatic changes. The reasons for this are varying. Some of them believed that they were content with the current situation in which they felt comfortable. Others thought they were afraid that too many changes may affect their daily instruction. And the remaining 2 respondents (4%) were unclear whether they needed to see more changes or not.

Scholarly Pursuits

In general, a school teacher's role used to be a practitioner. Can such a conventional role be changed in order to meet the increasingly demands of the ever-changing instructional world? In other words, can school teachers participate in the process of research while conducting their instruction? In response to Question 8, *it is said that research should play a key role at a PDS? What roles should teachers at a PDS play in this research,* 26 respondents (58%) believed that teachers at the PDS are directly involved in the process of research. These respondents appeared to be aware of the importance and urgency of research as a guide to the improvement of their daily instruction. 13 respondents (29%)held that research demands the combination of team efforts. They believed their job is mainly to assist university faculty members in conducting research. Only 6 respondents (13%) were hesitant to giving credence to the teachers' participation in research either directly or indirectly. The reasons for this are various, such as time, interests and objectivity.

II. Professionalism

Teaching is the science of art. On the one hand, teaching is based on theoretical models as guidelines to various instructional activities. On the other hand, teaching requires experienced instructors to integrate skills and strategies into their particular daily instruction, which will attract and motivate all students to learn better. Teaching strategies and skills need to be improved gradually, systematically and consistently both at preservice level and inservice level in order to meet the requirements of a continuum of professional development.

Preservice Education

When involved in the teaching practicuum on the school site, the student interns work closely with classroom teachers, or clinical teachers, who are in charge of their professionally training. In response to Question 11, *what do you think the role of clinical teachers should be in the supervision of interns,* 34 respondents (76%) believed that the clinical teachers' role is to help, support, and guide interns to develop professionally. 7 respondents (16%) held that the clinical teachers' role is to supervise and direct interns. 4 respondents (9%) contended the belief that only university supervisor could evaluate interns. They argued that since clinical teachers are working closely with their interns day in and day out, they are able to evaluate as well as observe interns. 2 respondents (4%), however, suggested clinical teachers need to work closely with university supervisors during the whole process of the supervision of interns including assistance and supervision and evaluation of interns. 5 respondents (11%) indicated that clinical teachers should establish a good working relationship with their interns, who may have some basic theoretical background in education but lack working experience in a real-life situation. After all, a clinical teacher's role is that of assistance, supervision, working relation, and evaluation.

In response to Question 12, *what do you think the role of the university supervisor should be in the supervision of interns,* only 10 respondents (22%), compared to 34 ones (76%) in response to Question 11, believed that the role of supervisor is to assist interns in their professional development. 9 respondents (20%) believed that the supervisor's role is to supervise interns in such a broad sense that they help make sure interns are doing what the university requires them to. 12 respondents (27%) believed that university supervisor need to collaborate and cooperate with clinical teachers who may provide them with information, more concrete, complete and coherent with regard to the whole process of interns' professional development. More respondents, 25 (56%) vs. 4 (9%) respondents who answered Question 11, expected university professors to evaluate interns. They believed that university supervisors understand more the guidelines, rules and academic criteria interns are required to follow.

Inservice Education

Working in the PDS, teachers constantly receive professional training on the school site with the help of their university partner. In response to Question 2, *how much would you say the school benefits from being a PDS,* 41, 2, and 1 respondents assured that the school benefits "a lot," "some" and "little," respectively. The remaining 2 respondents' answers were found irrelevant to the question. While in response to Question 3, *how much would you say you personally benefit from being part of PDS,* 36, 3 and 1 respondents replied that each of them personally benefits "a lot," 'some" and "none," respectively. 4 respondents' answers were irrelevant to the question. With regard to what benefits the school, individual teachers receive from the partnership, respondents focused on four areas, namely, strategies, research, partnership, and retraining.

Obviously, the ultimate goal of instruction is to help all students, gifted, average, or with learning difficulties, learn better and become good citizens that the society needs. In this sense, inservice education could not be improved without the enhancement of all students in their learning tasks. While answering Question 4, *how much would you say you students benefit from being part of the PDS,* 40, 1, and 1 respondents believed that their students benefit "a lot," "a little," "none," respectively. 3 responses were found irrelevant to the question. 33, 12, 11, and 12 respondents specified the benefits into 4 groups, that is, strategies, attitudes, effect, and collaboration, respectively.

III. Relationship

The relationship between university and school should be a collegial and professional one. But in reality, they need to keep in an informal contact, or a social relation. In response to Question 9, *what kinds of collegial (professional) relationship should exist between faculty at the PDS and the university faculty,* 9 respondents (20%) maintained that there should be a professional while other 9 respondents (20%) insisted that the relationship be on a social basis. 22 respondents (49%) expected that the two institutions should continue to be open to each other and keep on dialogue, communication between each other. 24 respondents (53%) believed that the relationship should be based upon a two-way street concept, or a partnership, in a sense, each depends upon and respect another, without one being superior, or dominant, to the other.

Basically, the relationship between the university and the school should be a collegial, or professional, one. But this seems not enough for school teachers. "Relationship should be two-sided, professionally and socially," which should be "friendly," "close" and "honest." Specifically the school teachers had a socially gathering in a department chair's house years ago, which to their memory "was certainly enjoyed by everyone."

As a common request, a great communication is important between university faculties and school teachers. Such communication cannot be established without a mutual respect and mutual understanding. But in the real world this communication is easier said than done. The Two-way-street concept depicts the university/school relationship that should be trustworthy, should be open, should be "like a partner, one cannot be without the other." Within this relationship, both university professors and school teachers are "open to discuss that true feelings about what we're doing in our classroom." With a close and true friendship, teachers from both institutions can "get more honest feedback."

IV. Problems

As a follow-up probe related to the second question of the interview, the questionnaire asked the respondents to point out drawbacks with regard to the process of building up PDS. 18 respondents (40%) replied that they were pleased with what were occurring on the school site and could not find any drawbacks at the moment. 13 respondents (28%) did not mention if there was any drawback or not. The remaining 14

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respondents (31%), however, referred to some problems that need to be taken into consideration.

(a) Time Pressure 9 out of the 14 respondents mentioned that time was a major factor for them to implement new programs introduced by the university faculty. (b) Change 2 respondents said that change cannot occur too quickly. (c) Interruption 1 respondent wished university professors or any other university personnel not to interrupt classroom instruction without informing classroom teachers. (d) Partnership 1 respondent anticipated that universities themselves would come in touch with each other. (e) Policy 1 respondent contended whether a school policy is adopted should be dependent upon whether it is eventually beneficial to each member of the student population, especially those students with learning disabilities.

Discussion

This study addressed issues concerning benefit, research, change, administration, relationship and internship in the process of the establishment of PDS. Results showed that the majority of teachers in the study were in favor of the PDS model. Specifically, the PDS model inspired instruction, learning, research as well as school/university collaboration. Although there remain such problems as time pressure, lack of great communication between public schools and universities, we anticipate that the PDS model of today will probably become a model of our school of tomorrow, in a sense that schools and universities will, more than ever before, collaborate, support and interdependent upon each other to foster our younger generation who will become good citizens with solid readiness, moral, academic, emotional and social.

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A Research on Continuing Education for Both Middle and Primary School Teachers in Beijing

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Abstract

In Beijing there are 120,000 middle and primary school teachers who are the base of elementary education. To improve the teachers' professional skills and reinforce the construction of the educators' rank so as to adapt to the development of future education, the municipal education administration department takes pains to work on the teachers' continuing education (CE for short). The program started in 1986 and three years later it was well developed. The intention is to improve the professional morals of the teachers who have got the diploma required by the government, to renew their knowledge and improve their teaching and scientific research ability.

The first round CE started in Sep. 1989 and ended in 1995. It was performed on four levels: 120 hours' training for the teachers who newly graduated from colleges, 180 hours for junior teachers, 240 for intermediate teachers and 360 for senior teachers.

With a view to further improve the professional morals and skills of elementary educators as well as the teaching quality, Beijing Education Commission decided to start the second round CE for both middle and primary school teachers in 1997. It is required that by the year 2001, the teachers who are newly assigned to his post and who have got the diploma required by the Teachers Law should receive 120 hours training in their first practical year and the other teachers 360 hours (male under the age 55, female under 50). The teachers who are taking a higher diploma education don't need to have either 120 hours training or 360 hours training.

To guarantee a healthy development of the CE, after the basic thinking on the second round CE is determined, the next job is to reinforce test and evaluation and improve teaching methods, teaching means as well as the trainers' quality.

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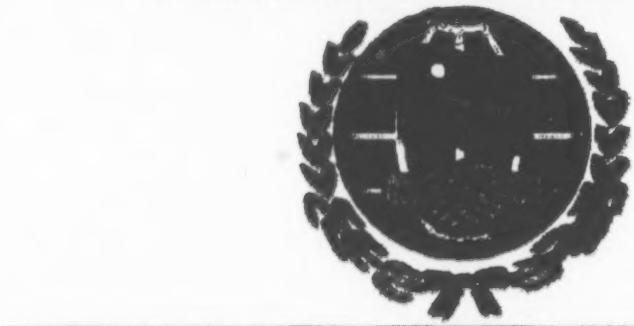

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